THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

1903-1914

From P. 27

Secondary

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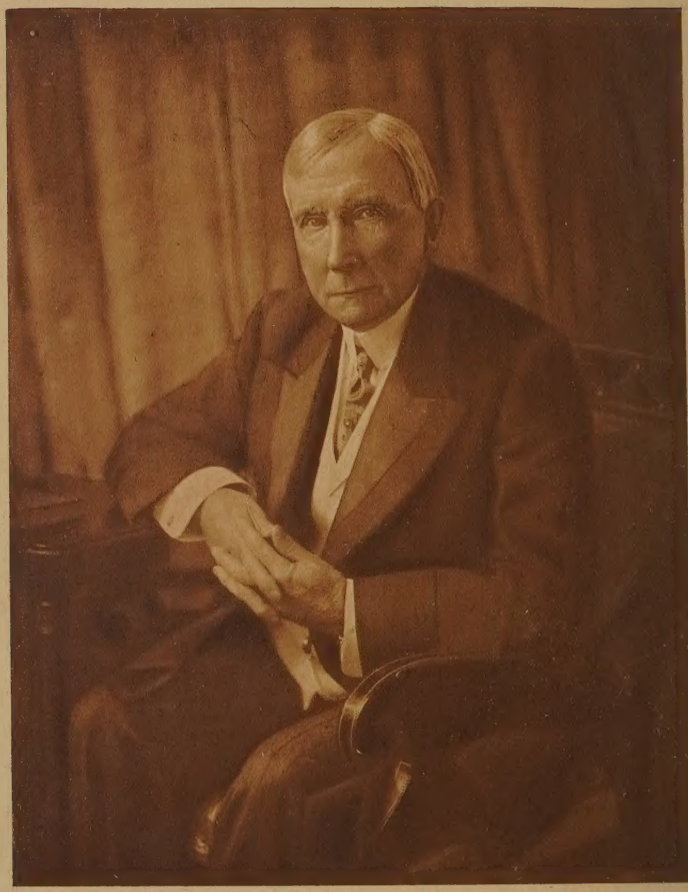
THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD



John D. Rockefeller

THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

AN ACCOUNT OF ITS ACTIVITIES

1902–1914

With 32 Full Page Illustrations and 31 Maps

NEW YORK
GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD
61 BROADWAY
1915

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OFFICERS AND MEMBERS
OF THE
GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

—

OFFICERS

Chairman	William H. Baldwin, Jr.	1902-1904
	Robert C. Ogden	1905-1906
	Frederick T. Gates	1907-
Secretary	Wallace Buttrick	1902-
Assistant Secretaries	William H. Heck	1903-1905
	Eben Charles Sage	1905-
	Abraham Flexner	1913-
Treasurer	George Foster Peabody	1902-1909
	Louis G. Myers	1910-
Assistant Treasurer	L. M. Dashiell	1914-

MEMBERS

* William H. Baldwin, Jr.	1902-1905
* Jabez L. M. Curry	1902-1903
Frederick T. Gates	1902-
* Daniel C. Gilman	1902-1908
* Morris K. Jesup	1902-1908
* Robert C. Ogden	1902-1913
Walter H. Page	1902-

* Deceased.

† George Foster Peabody	1902-1912
John D. Rockefeller, Jr.	1902-
Albert Shaw	1902-
Wallace Buttrick	1902-
Starr J. Murphy	1904-
* William R. Harper	1905-1906
† Hugh H. Hanna	1905-1912
† E. Benjamin Andrews	1905-1912
Edwin A. Alderman	1906-
Hollis B. Frissell	1906-
Harry Pratt Judson	1906-
Charles W. Eliot	1908-
Andrew Carnegie	1908-
Edgar L. Marston	1909-
Wickliffe Rose	1910-
Jerome D. Greene	1912-
Anson Phelps Stokes	1912-
Abraham Flexner	1914-
George E. Vincent	1914-

* Deceased.
† Resigned

INTRODUCTORY NOTE

This volume gives an account of the activities of the General Education Board from its foundation in 1902 up to June 30, 1914. The Board has made annual reports to the United States Department of the Interior and these have been regularly printed in the reports of the Department; but no further report has been hitherto issued, because, as the Board's work was felt to be experimental in character, premature statements respecting the scope and outcome of its efforts were to be avoided. After something more than a decade, tangible results have begun to appear, and to their description and consideration the following pages are devoted. Henceforth, statements will be issued annually, and, from time to time, a more critical discussion like the present report will be published.

THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

The General Education Board

I. HISTORY OF THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

THE General Education Board, founded by John D. Rockefeller, began informally when, on the evening of January 15, 1902, a few of those who subsequently became its members met for the purpose of discussing the probable scope and methods of an educational organization, the creation of which Mr. Rockefeller was then contemplating. At a second meeting, held in the following month, and attended by Messrs. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., F. T. Gates, W. H. Baldwin, Jr., J. L. M. Curry, Robert C. Ogden, Daniel C. Gilman, Walter H. Page, Albert Shaw, and Wallace Buttrick,[1] the counsel, Edward M. Shepard, submitted articles of association under which the Board began its preliminary operations. Incorporation by Act of Congress took place January 12, 1903. The charter[2] set forth the general object of the corporation as "the promotion of education within the United States of America, without distinction of race, sex, or creed"; and this broad object

[1] Mr. Morris K. Jesup, who had attended the first meeting, was unavoidably absent from the second.

[2] Printed in full in Appendix I, pp. 212-215.

was specifically stated to include the power to establish or endow elementary or primary schools, industrial schools, technical schools, normal schools, training schools for teachers, or schools of any grade, or higher institutions of learning; to coöperate with associations engaged in educational work; to donate property or money to any such association; to collect educational statistics and information, to publish and distribute documents and reports, "and in general to do and perform all things necessary or convenient for the promotion of the object of the corporation." Under the authority thus conferred, the entire field of education in the United States—taking the word education in its broadest significance—is open to the General Education Board. The Board can employ its resources in supplementing the income of established institutions of learning; it can coöperate with state and local authorities as well as with private organizations; it can undertake educational experimentation along new and hitherto untried lines, whether at the primary, academic, technical, industrial, or professional level; it can conduct educational research and disseminate educational data.

MEMBERSHIP

The membership of the Board has from the outset been selected with distinct reference to the varied and weighty responsibilities involved.[1] It was recognized that the feasibility of coöperation between private and

[1] See list of members, xiii and xiv

governmental agencies and the large opportunity open to individual initiative in dealing with social and educational problems are among the distinct advantages of a democratic social order. But the usefulness of any particular effort in these directions must depend on the wisdom with which it is conducted—i. e., on the competency and disinterestedness of those charged with its direction. Where a high order of capacity and experience is thus enlisted, it is not too much to say that complete responsibility to professional and public opinion is joined with equally complete independence of personal, sectional, or institutional interests. Foreign observers of American conditions have repeatedly commented with something like envy on the comparative ease with which large sums have been brought into fruitful use under a form of supervision, which aims to bring together in one Board both the lay and the professional points of view, and to represent every phase of social and educational concern. The devotion of private fortunes to public ends on these terms is highly desirable; and leaders in social and educational endeavor can and do render intelligent and patriotic service by participation in these characteristically American enterprises.[1]

RANGE OF ACTIVITIES

The creation of the General Education Board marked the coming together and expansion of two distinct lines of interest and activity.

[1] For a fuller consideration of these points, see pp. 105-109; 80-82.

(*a*) *Higher Education*

Prior to 1902 Mr. Rockefeller had confined his educational benefactions mainly to such institutions as were conducted under the auspices of his own religious denomination. For this purpose he had acted through the American Baptist Education Society, an organization which fostered academies, colleges, and theological seminaries under Baptist auspices throughout the United States and Canada. The institutions thus assisted form, in the main, the contribution of the Baptist denomination to the general educational resources of the nation. In this spirit the Society had in 1889 determined on the establishment of the University of Chicago, a decision the fulfilment of which, on the broad lines laid down at the outset, was subsequently realized chiefly through Mr. Rockefeller's gifts.[1] The Baptist Education Society aided only institutions which were affiliated with its own denomination, and of these, such only as gave promise of permanent and increasing usefulness. A plan of education under Baptist auspices had been somewhat carefully elaborated, which was designed to furnish the Baptist denomination of the United States with a comprehensive and orderly system of colleges and academies. For a decade or more the Society wrought

[1] See "Address on the Proposed Institution of Learning at Chicago," by Mr. Frederick T. Gates, the Corresponding Secretary, in report of First Annual Meeting of the American Baptist Education Society, May 18, 1889. Mr. Rockefeller's gifts to the University of Chicago total $34,702,375.28.

with diligence and success toward the realization of this denominational system of education, Mr. Rockefeller being the chief benefactor. But as Mr. Rockefeller's fortune increased, his interest in education broadened, and with it a sense of public duty and responsibility which transcended alike denominational, sectional, and racial lines. To provide an agency through which the broadest possible interest in education throughout the land could find a fitting expression, the General Education Board, long existing as an ideal in his office, finally came into being. Without limitation the funds of the General Education Board were to be distributed to institutions of any denomination or no denomination. Moreover, the scope of the Board was designed to include activities with which the Baptist Society had not undertaken to deal. Nevertheless, the historic relationship between the two organizations is clear. The General Education Board is, on this side, an outgrowth of the Baptist Education Society. The Board adopted the main principles and practices of the Baptist Society and extended them, dropping the denominational and other limitations. It took over the conception of a system of higher education, comprehensive, mutually related, and supplemental in its parts, so expanded, however, as to cover institutions with and without denominational connections.[1] The Board adopted, too the manner in which the Baptist Society had made

[1] This point will be more fully discussed in connection with the contributions of the Board to universities and colleges, pp. 108-112.

its contributions, and even the precise form of pledge that had been employed.[1]

(*b*) *Education in the South*

Vigorous interest in the industrial and educational upbuilding of the South represented the second of the two lines of activity which merged in the General Education Board. The Southern states were making unprecedented efforts toward their own educational rehabilitation. In these efforts valuable assistance had already been rendered by several private foundations and organizations created for the express purpose of coöperating with the Southern people. The most prominent of these bodies were the Peabody Education Fund, the Trustees of the Slater Fund, and the Southern Education Board. They were all non-official in character and either endowed or entirely supported by private funds. Neither they nor the General Education Board ever possessed or sought authority; they have simply had such influence as has resulted from public confidence in their disinterested devotion, sympathy, and intelligence. More flexible than governmental bureaus, less restricted in their choice of agents and advisers, more continuous in policy, these organizations have for years devoted themselves to furthering educational plans which represent the consensus of the best judgment obtainable. So important has been the part played by these bodies in the upbuilding

[1] This is explained fully in the section devoted to colleges and universities, pp. 144-147.

of Southern education since the war, and so intimate their relationship with the General Education Board, that a word may fitly be said of them in this connection.

THE PEABODY EDUCATION FUND

The Peabody Education Fund—something above $2,000,000—was established, shortly after the close of the war, by George Peabody, a native of Massachusetts, who subsequently became a London banker. The Fund was designed for the promotion of popular education in the Southern states through coöperation with state and local officials. Subject to a representative body of trustees, three general agents were successively engaged in this work: Dr. Barnas Sears, sometime president of Brown University, Dr. J. L. M. Curry of Virginia, and Dr. Wickliffe Rose of Tennessee. The Peabody Board, through its general agents, assisted the educational leaders of the several states in creating sentiment and procuring legislation favorable to popular education; it aided in the establishment of public schools in cities and towns, and in the development of state normal schools, in the support of Hampton Institute, Tuskegee Institute, and other private schools for Negroes, and finally contributed the bulk of its capital ($1,500,000) to the new George Peabody College for Teachers, affiliated with Vanderbilt University at Nashville. In combining private and unofficial with public and official endeavor, the George Peabody Fund was the pioneer educational foundation. Its general agents were often invited to

address joint sessions of the legislatures of the several Southern states; and its efforts were repeatedly recognized in legislative enactments. An Alabama statute, for example, provided that the State Superintendent of Education should hold teachers' institutes every summer in each congressional district and authorized him to expend in each district "not to exceed $500, the amount not in any case to exceed the amount paid for such purpose by the trustees of the Peabody Education Fund." The history of this endowment indicates the lines on which coöperation between unofficial and official agencies may be effectively carried on.

THE JOHN F. SLATER FUND

The Slater Fund, originally $1,000,000, but well-nigh doubled by wise management, was left by the late John F. Slater, a manufacturer of Norwich, Connecticut. Its purpose was the development of educational facilities for the Negro. Bishop Haygood, sometime president of Emory College, Georgia, Dr. J. L. M. Curry, Dr. Wallace Buttrick, and Dr. James H. Dillard of New Orleans, Louisiana, served in succession as general agent. The Fund contributed from its income to the support of normal schools, denominational schools, and many town schools for Negroes. It was of material aid in developing the Trade Schools at Hampton and Tuskegee, the Hospital and Teacher Training Departments at Spelman Seminary, the industrial work at Claflin University, and many other institutions. Throughout its history special emphasis

has been laid on the training of the hands and on what is now popularly known as vocational education. Under the direction of Dr. Dillard, the present general agent, the attention of the Board is more and more being concentrated on the rural schools.[1]

THE SOUTHERN EDUCATION BOARD

The Southern Education Board, organized by the late Robert C. Ogden, was an outgrowth of the Annual Conference for Education in the South. The object of both these organizations will be more definitely stated when rural educational conditions are described.[2] They must, however, be mentioned at this point because the propaganda in behalf of popular education in the South carried on by them was a factor in crystallizing Mr. Rockefeller's already profound interest in this particular problem on the establishment of the General Education Board.

The organizations above described were either limited

[1] Two additional funds have been created in recent years for the benefit of Negro education: the Anna T. Jeanes Fund for Negro Rural Schools, and the Phelps-Stokes Fund. Miss Jeanes, a native of Pennsylvania, after giving $200,000 in trust to the General Education Board (see p. 202), the income to be expended on Negro rural schools, gave $1,000,000 to a Board organized at her request by Dr. H. B. Frissell and Dr. Booker T. Washington. Dr. Dillard is president of the Board and director of the Fund, which is now utilized to maintain county supervising industrial teachers, coöperating with the public school authorities. See pp. 196-8.

The Phelps-Stokes Fund, approximately $1,000,000, left by Miss Caroline Phelps Stokes to a Board of Trustees, is now supporting out of its income a study of leading Negro schools and colleges, and certain fellowships at the University of Georgia and the University of Virginia for the study of the Negro problem.

[2] See pp. 179-180.

in point of duration, like the Peabody Fund, or lacked permanent endowment, like the Southern Education Board. It was obvious, therefore, that there was room for still another type of institution—an institution permanent in character, and with an assured income, devoted in part, at least, to coöperation with the Southern people in the development of a comprehensive educational policy. For some years previous to the organization of the General Education Board, Mr. Rockefeller's attention had been directed to the needs of the people of the South, both white and colored, and particularly to the existing conditions in respect to elementary education. Its charter was so drawn as to enable the General Education Board to enter this field. While the precise part to be undertaken was not defined in advance, Mr. Rockefeller, in making his first gift to the Board, called attention to the educational needs of the people of the Southern states and indicated his special interest therein.

EDUCATIONAL SURVEY OF THE SOUTH

Accordingly, the Board, through its Secretary, assisted by several field agents, at once set to work to acquire a thorough knowledge of conditions in the Southern states. To use the phrase now current, surveys were planned, state by state. In the fall of 1902 a conference of the County Superintendents of Georgia was held at the State University at Athens. Among the questions informally discussed were finance, supervision, school consolidation, Negro education, etc. Similar confer-

ences in Virginia, the Carolinas, Florida, and other states followed. Subsequently, detailed field studies were made and separate state monographs prepared, dealing with the organization of the public school system, its finances, the number and character of school buildings, the number, training, and pay of public school teachers, private and public secondary schools, institutions for the higher education of women, schools for the training of teachers, and schools, public and private, for the education of Negroes.

These monographs were distributed to members of the General Education Board and were kept on file in the office of the Board. They were not published, because no good purpose was at that time to be subserved thereby. However, in little more than the decade that has passed since that time, the general educational situation in the Southern states has been so largely transformed that the facts contained in these documents now possess considerable historic interest. In subsequent pages they will be utilized by way of showing the rapid improvements that have taken place.[1]

POLICY OF THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

But the studies just referred to did more than supply facts. For out of them a conclusion of far-reaching importance soon emerged. They convinced the Board that no fund, however large, could, by direct gifts, contribute a system of public schools; that even if it were

[1] See pp. 72-77; 181-184.

possible to develop a system of public schools by private gifts, it would be a positive disservice. The best thing in connection with public school education is the doing of it. The public school must represent community ideals, community initiative, and community support, even to the point of sacrifice. The General Education Board could be helpful only by respecting this fundamental truth. It therefore felt its way cautiously, conscious of the difficulty, complexity, and delicacy of the situation. It hoped to aid, not by foisting upon the South a program from outside, but by coöperating with Southern leaders in sympathetically working out a program framed by them on the basis of local conditions and local considerations. The several steps taken in consequence of this attitude will be described in detail in this volume. It will be observed that the Board has scrupulously maintained the position above defined: it has coöperated, not interfered. The lines on which coöperation could profitably take place have been arrived at as the result of conference between national, state, and local authorities, competent unofficial observers, and the officers and members of the General Education Board. The experience of over a decade has conclusively proved that on this basis endowed agencies can perform valuable public service in a democracy.

II. RESOURCES AND EXPENDITURES

PENDING the steps necessary to incorporation, Mr. Rockefeller in 1902 gave $1,000,000 to the General Education Board. In making his initial gift,[1] Mr Rockefeller referred to the fact that he understood it to be the immediate intention of the Board to devote itself to studying the needs and aiding to promote the educational interests of the people of the Southern states It was stipulated that the principal be used in the Southern states and that it be expended during a period of ten years.

GIFTS TO ENDOWMENT

The first permanent endowment, received June 30, 1905, and amounting to $10,000,000, was expressly designed to furnish an income "to be distributed to, or used for the benefit of, such institutions of learning, at such times, in such amounts, for such purposes, and under such conditions, or employed in such other ways as the Board may deem best adapted to promote a comprehensive system of higher education in the United States."[2]

[1] Mr. Rockefeller's letters announcing his gifts to the General Education Board, with the letters of the Board in reply, are given in full in Appendix II, pp. 216-223.

[2] The limitations on the use of this gift were subsequently removed.

In February, 1907, a further gift of $32,000,000 was made, "one third to be added to the permanent endowment of the Board; two thirds to be applied to such specific objects within the corporate purposes of the Board" as Mr. Rockefeller or Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., might direct, "the remainder not so designated, at the death of the survivor, to be added to the permanent endowment of the Board."[1] This addition to endowment was accompanied by no restriction whatsoever as to the specific educational objects to which its income was to be devoted.

On July 7, 1909, Mr. Rockefeller increased his benefactions by the gift of an additional $10,000,000, at the same time authorizing and empowering the Board, in its discretion, to distribute its entire principal or any part thereof, and releasing the Board from the obligation to hold his gifts in perpetuity. Besides the sums above specified as contributed by Mr. Rockefeller, the Board received, April 17, 1905, the sum of $200,000 from Miss Anna T. Jeanes for the "assistance of the Negro rural schools in the South."[2]

At the present time the Board's resources are valued at $33,939,156.89, of which $30,918,063.80 is general endowment and $3,021,093.09 reserve fund. The gross income

[1] Out of the sum thus subject to distribution, and its accrued income, the following gifts have been made:

(a) To the University of Chicago	$13,554,343.99
(b) To the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research .	10,267,022.10
(c) To the General Education Board	1,239,830.38
	$25,061,196.47

[2] See pp. 223.

from these funds for the year 1913-14 was $2,417,079.62. In addition the Anna T. Jeanes Fund of $200,000 yielded a gross income of $9,231.64.

APPROPRIATIONS

In accordance with the terms of its charter, the Board has initiated several distinct, though related, lines of activity which will be described in this volume. Its appropriations up to June 30, 1914, have been as follows:

Colleges and Universities	$10,582,591.80
Medical Schools	2,670,874.11
Negro Colleges and Schools	699,781.13
Miscellaneous Schools	159,991.02
Professors of Secondary Education	242,861.09
Southern Education Board	97,126.23
Rural School Agents (both races)	104,443.18
Farm Demonstration Work—South (including Boys' and Girls' Clubs)	925,750.00
Farm Demonstration Work—Maine and New Hampshire (including Boys' and Girls' Clubs)	50,876.45
Rural Organization Service	37,166.66
Educational Conferences	18,108.23
Administrative Expenses	304,794.99
Total	$15,894,364.89

III. FARM DEMONSTRATIONS

IT WILL be remembered that Mr. Rockefeller's first gift to the General Education Board was designed to support an inquiry into the educational needs of the Southern people. To the officers and members of the Board who visited the South for personal study, it soon became clear that more favorable economic conditions must be attained before comprehensive school systems could be supported by taxation. The Southern people were not educationally apathetic; on the contrary, popular education, unknown to the antebellum régime, had come to be an object of ardent desire in the three decades that had passed between 1870 and 1900; significant steps had already been taken in many states, and generous private subscriptions were being added to public taxation. But adequate developments could not take place until the available resources of the people were greatly enlarged. School systems could not be given to them, and they were not prosperous enough to support them. Such was the situation reduced to its simplest terms.

EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS IN THE SOUTH

A few of the facts gathered at the time by the Board will make this point clear. The state school fund of Alabama

A twenty-acre alfalfa demonstration on J. B. Andrews' farm, Roanoke County, Va. The yield was from four and one half to five tons per acre.

for the year ending September 30, 1903, was $1,167,887.90; in Georgia, the total from both state and local sources was somewhat less; the total net disbursements of Mississippi that year were a little less than $1,900,000; in Tennessee, expenditures were slightly in excess of $2,600,000. The remaining Southern states did not vary materially from the examples cited. These sums were obviously inadequate to their purposes. In some states they included amounts raised by local taxation; but in general, local levies were either impossible or were confined by statute to very narrow limits.

The real difficulty became strikingly apparent when the details essential to the organization and conduct of a school system were examined. Salaries were uniformly low and clerical assistance extremely meagre. The State Superintendent of Alabama was paid $2,500 annually, with a total allowance for clerks of $4,400; in North Carolina, $2,000 and $2,500 respectively were appropriated; in South Carolina, $1,900 and $900; in Tennessee, $2,000 and $1,920. Georgia prescribed no qualifications for its State "Commissioner of Education"; in Mississippi, only an age qualification existed; Tennessee made a vague professional requirement; Virginia specified in general terms "an experienced educator."

Matters were even less satisfactory in respect to the county superintendency. The average salary of these officers in Alabama in 1902 was $575 a year; in Louisiana, $482; in Virginia, $399.75. Clearly the county superintendent could not as a rule devote himself wholly to

his educational duties, and it was not to be expected that the post would usually be filled by specially trained men.

At this same period the white teachers of Alabama were receiving average annual salaries of $151.84; colored teachers, $95.53; in South Carolina, $195.28 and $79.47 respectively; in Louisiana, white and colored together, $254. The average throughout the United States was at this time $516. The per capita expenditure on school children ranged from $3.38 in North Carolina to $7.43 in Louisiana, while in the country at large it stood at $15.08. In Georgia, the county school term averaged 5.2 months; in Mississippi, a four-months' term was required by statute; in Tennessee, the county term varied from fifty-five days in Claiborne County to one hundred and forty-five in Bedford; the statutory requirement in Virginia was a term of five months or 100 days.[1]

Under these circumstances the entire organization was necessarily inefficient and unsatisfactory. The salaries were too low to support a teaching profession and the terms too brief to engage the time and energy of the teacher; competent professional training could not exist, satisfactory equipment could not be provided, and, if provided, could not be utilized. A well-organized state system, conducted by properly qualified officials efficiently supervising comfortable schools in charge of trained teachers during a term of sufficient length, did not a decade ago exist in any Southern state.

[1] All the illustrations here given are taken from the surveys above mentioned.

Deep fall plowing (18 inches deep) in South Georgia by modern machinery. District Agent on left.

UNFAVORABLE ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

But, as has already been stated, these conditions were not primarily due to any lack of interest in popular education. They were mainly the result of rural poverty. While the average annual earnings of individuals engaged in agriculture in the State of Iowa were upward of $1,000, the average earnings of those similarly engaged in some of the Southern states were as low as $150. Nor were these meagre agricultural incomes supplemented by disproportionately large returns from mines or manufactures. Eighty-five per cent. of the Southern population was rural in character. Trade did not therefore supply what the farm failed to produce. The great bulk of the people of the Southern states was simply not earning enough to provide proper homes and to support good schools. Whatever the other deficiencies, the prime need was money.

It was obvious that the General Education Board could render no substantial educational service to the South until the farmers of the South could provide themselves with larger incomes. The resources of the soil were ample or would become so under scientific cultivation; the climate was highly favorable to general rural prosperity. But the Southern farmer suffered from lack of scientific knowledge of agriculture, knowledge available, indeed, though never effectually distributed to the people. It was necessary to improve Southern agriculture. How could this be done?

The Board was advised to address itself to the rising generation—that is, to support the teaching of agriculture in the common schools. After thoughtful consideration this plan was rejected. In the absence of trained teachers, the effort was impracticable; moreover, there were no funds with which to pay such teachers, and the instruction itself would not materially contribute to its own support. Finally, it was impossible to force intelligent agricultural instruction upon schools whose patrons were not themselves alive to the deficiencies of their own agricultural methods. Until the public was convinced of the feasibility of superior and more productive methods, the public schools could not be reconstructed; once the public was convinced, and by reason thereof better able to stand the increased cost, the schools would naturally and inevitably readjust themselves.

It was therefore deliberately decided to undertake the agricultural education not of the future farmer, but of the present farmer, on the theory that, if he could be substantially helped, he would gladly support better schools in more and more liberal fashion. The Board, therefore, set about an extensive inquiry as to the best means of conveying to the average working farmer of the South, in his manhood, the most efficient known methods of intelligent farming.

ORIGIN OF THE FARM DEMONSTRATION

The extension of the so-called Coöperative Farm Demonstration movement resulted from this investiga-

Excellent demonstration in cotton and corn, Cullman County, Ala., 1911.

tion. The story of its inception and expansion is not without strong human interest. In the first place, the Secretary of the Board spent almost a year under its authorization in seeking to discover the most effective methods of teaching improved agricultural methods to adult farmers. Agricultural schools in various parts of the United States and Canada were studied: the MacDonald College at St. Anne, Quebec; the Agricultural College of Ontario at Guelph; the agricultural colleges of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Texas. By a fortunate coincidence Dr. Seaman A. Knapp chanced at this time to be lecturing on the farm demonstration method at the last-named institution.

The Mexican cotton boll weevil was just beginning its devastations. As the pest spread, a panic had taken place in Texas. Cotton was the principal crop, and the days of its profitable cultivation seemed to be numbered. Farms were abandoned and counties well-nigh depopulated. Acting for the United States Department of Agriculture, Dr. Knapp in 1903 established a community demonstration farm at Terrell, Texas, for the purpose of showing farmers how cotton could be raised despite the boll weevil, with such success, indeed, that, from one point of view, the boll-weevil curse proved a sort of blessing in disguise. By means of the improved methods employed by Dr. Knapp, the production of cotton was actually increased and normal business conditions were accordingly restored. If the demonstration method paid in dealing with a pest-ridden farm, was there not every

reason to suppose that it would pay still more handsomely where no handicap at all existed? In Dr. Knapp's farm demonstration work, limited at that time to combating the boll weevil, the General Education Board found the answer to its search for a method of delivering the existing knowledge of effective agricultural processes to present farmers.

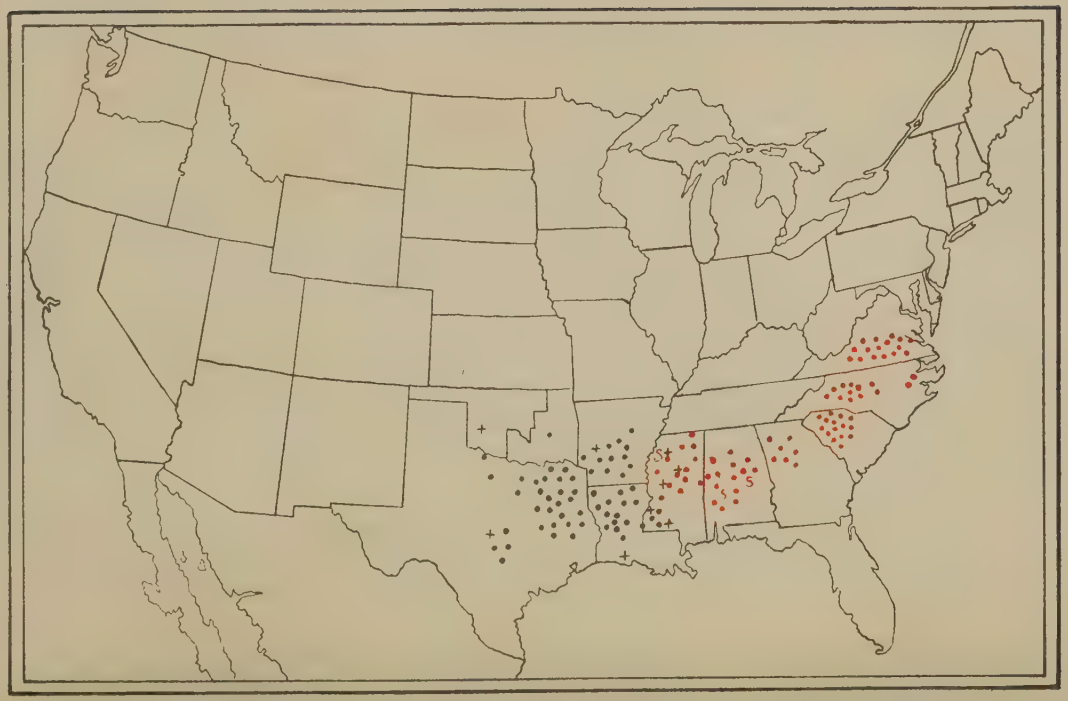
Shortly afterward, the executive officers of the General Education Board—the Chairman and the Secretary—met Dr. Knapp in Washington in a series of conferences. Dr. Knapp's varied agricultural activities and experience were thoroughly discussed—particularly the history and outcome of his efforts in farm demonstration. The feasibility of extending the method as an educational measure was considered—the cost of such extension, the probability of its ultimately supporting itself, the length of time which must probably elapse before any such result could be counted on. It was agreed that the work would permanently affect Southern agricultural prosperity only if it became vitally rooted; that, therefore, an outside agency engaged in its promotion must regard its part as temporary and experimental. Dr. Knapp was from the outset confident that experience would justify this view. He believed that if the demonstration work could once be started by outside funds in a state, a county, or a community, it would promptly enlist local support; that it would spread from community to community and from state to state; and that in the end the teaching of agriculture and

Typical stalk of cotton from a field worked under old methods. Note: The weevils have stripped it of all but one boll.

domestic arts would become an accepted feature of rural education.

The program above sketched could not, however, be carried out by the Federal Government, because, at that time, it was held that government funds could be spent only for interstate purposes. Following the success of the experimental demonstration at Terrell, Texas, Congress had made special appropriations for the purpose of combating the boll weevil, and cotton culture farms were established by Dr. Knapp throughout the infested region; but, as the appropriation was based on the theory that the weevil was an interstate menace and, only as such, a legitimate object of Federal concern, the money was not available for strictly educational uses. The coöperation of the General Education Board made the educational application of the idea possible. While still retaining his connection with the Department of Agriculture, Dr. Knapp readily accepted an offer made by the Board to finance the educational extension of farm demonstrations, entering into the scheme with all the vigor and enthusiasm of youth. The United States Department of Agriculture became a party to the necessary arrangements. An agreement, signed April 20, 1906, by the Secretary of Agriculture and the Secretary of the General Education Board, provided that "The farmers' coöperative work, in which the General Education Board is to become interested, shall be entirely distinct in territory and finance from that carried on solely by the Department of Agriculture" and that "the United

Figure 1.



Distribution of work between U. S. Government and General Education Board, 1908

* Agents paid by United States Government
† Agents paid wholly or in part by local subscriptions (personal, county, or organizations)
Agents paid by General Education Board
S Agents paid jointly by General Education Board and John F. Slater Fund

States Department of Agriculture shall have supervision of the work and shall appoint all special agents for this extended territory in the same way that they are now appointed, and the said agents shall be under control of said department in every respect as fully as any of the agents of the department." Henceforth agricultural demonstrations in weevil-infected states were conducted with government funds; agricultural demonstrations in non-infected states were supported by the General Education Board; control of both being lodged in the Federal Department of Agriculture.

A FARM DEMONSTRATION

Dr. Knapp's procedure was the very essence of simplicity. He knew that through seed selection and intensive farming the productivity of lands could be immensely augmented; in a word, more could be gained through intelligence than was lost through the weevil. In every afflicted vicinity Dr. Knapp undertook to propagate his methods by actual "demonstration" of their value. Selecting a relatively capable farmer in a given neighborhood, Dr. Knapp induced him to plant and cultivate a certain amount of land in a certain way, with a certain kind of seed; he relied on the natural imitative instinct to induce others to follow when once the result called attention to the superiority of the process. His bearing in the field was characteristic and inimitable. Approaching the farmer whom he desired to interest, he carried on a dialogue somewhat in this fashion:

"I have a cotton seed," he would explain, "which has been carefully selected through a long series of years. The planting of this seed and its proper cultivation will more than double your yield of cotton. We have come to you as a leading farmer of this vicinity and would like to have you make a demonstration of its value. The demonstration, we believe, will not only convince you of the value of good seed and of scientific tillage, but will also teach your neighbors the same thing."

Interest once aroused and confidence gained, the necessary conditions were broached one by one. The land must be plowed in the fall. "Why?" Because fall plowing gives mellowness to the soil and affords nature an opportunity to prepare plant food for the coming season. Moreover, the rows of cotton must be planted wide apart. "Why?" Because 85 per cent. or more of all vegetation is light and air: if the rows are close together, the cotton is starved and smothered. Again, the cotton must be cultivated six or eight times. "Why?" Because there is plenty of moisture down by the roots and you can keep it there only by constantly breaking up the soil so that it may not be evaporated by the heat of the sun. Thus the demonstration was in the first instance a simple object lesson. A few shrewd aphorisms controlled Dr. Knapp's procedure: "Don't confuse people by elaborate programs; the average man, like the crow, cannot count more than three." And again: "Do the next thing." He formulated and widely circulated

Demonstration corn, 1910, Thos. Hitchcock farm, Aiken, S. C. Land brought up from five bushels to sixty bushels per acre in two years under demonstration methods.

THE TEN AGRICULTURAL COMMANDMENTS

1. The removal of all surplus water on and in the soil.
2. Deep fall plowing; and in the South a winter cover crop (oats, wheat, etc.).
3. The best seed, including variety and quality.
4. Proper spacing of plants.
5. Intensive cultivation and systematic rotation of crops.
6. The judicious use of barnyard manure, legumes, and commercial fertilizers.
7. The home production of the food required for the family and for the stock.
8. The use of more horsepower and better machinery.
9. The raising of more and better stock, including the cultivation of grasses and forage plants.
10. Keeping an accurate account of the cost of farm operations.

BY-PRODUCTS

In his talks with farmers, bankers, and business men—for, though keeping headquarters in the Department of Agriculture at Washington, he travelled almost incessantly—Dr. Knapp endeavored to teach his hearers not only how to raise cotton and corn, but how to conduct farming as a business—how to ascertain the cost of a crop, how to find out whether they were making or losing money. "Agriculture," he was accustomed to declare,

"may be divided into eight parts: one eighth is science; three eighths is art; four eighths, business management." He never failed to expose the economic fallacy of the factoring system,[1] and urged that the farmer should raise what he needed for his family and his stock, rather than buy at the village store, in exchange for his one crop. There was, of course, no inherent reason for the restriction of the demonstration method to the production of cotton. As rapidly as possible, its scope was broadened for the purpose of making the farmer more and more independent. He was stimulated to raise stock, to produce feed and forage for his stock, and to interest himself in truck gardening, hog-raising, etc. A group of Mississippi farmers is remembered who had been taught by Dr. Knapp's representative not only how to grow cotton, but how to grow corn, potatoes, and small fruits, and how to keep accounts. "How many of you made your living last year?" was asked. Every one replied affirmatively. "How many two years ago?" Not one. For the first time in their lives they had balances in the bank and were measurably independent of the storekeeper. As a result of Dr. Knapp's teaching there is good prospect that the South, which has long sold cotton and with the proceeds bought food-stuffs, will grow the latter as well as the former.

As is invariably the case with a fertile idea, the by-products of the demonstration movement are thus hardly

[1] I. e., mortgaging the cotton crop in advance in order to obtain the year's supplies of meat, flour, corn, clothing, etc.

Demonstration hay in South Carolina, yielding 5,000 pounds of cured hay per acre in 1912.

Demonstration in oats, Arkansas, 1911. Yield, ninety bushels per acre.

inferior in significance to that of the original idea itself. An agricultural demonstration is essentially a coöperative undertaking, the financial contributors, the agent, the farmer, the community, all participating. But participation, once started, is not likely to stop. As a next step the demonstration agent naturally assembles in "field meetings" all neighborhood farmers engaged or interested in demonstration work; a certain degree of solidarity is created; bulletins, circulars, pamphlets are received and exchanged; communications are established between the farmer and the State Agricultural College or the Federal Department of Agriculture. Various beginnings are thus made in the direction of associated enterprise.

CHARACTERISTIC EXAMPLES

Dr. Knapp's reports and correspondence abound in picturesque and dramatic illustrations of the foregoing. "It is important," he says in one place, "to confine the work to standard crops and the instruction to basic methods and principles until every farmer knows the methods that make for success, instead of charging failure to the moon, to the season, to the soil, or to bad luck." He frequently depicts the psychological transformation that the demonstration method has produced. "Every step is a revelation and surprise. The farmer sees his name in the county paper as one of the farmers selected by the United States Department of Agriculture to conduct demonstration work; he receives instructions from Washington; he begins to be noticed by his fellows; he

is proud of planting the best seed and doing the best cultivation. When the demonstration agent calls a field meeting at his farm, he begins to feel that he is a man of more consequence than he had thought. Immediately the brush begins to disappear from fence corners and the weeds from the fields, the yard fence is straightened, whitewash or paint goes on the buildings, the team looks better, and the dilapidated harness is renovated. The man made a good crop, but the man grew faster than the crop."

Characteristic examples may be cited in abundance. East of Brookhaven, Mississippi, lived a wretched farmer on poor, piney woodland that "five years ago (this was written in 1910) sold for $1.00 an acre." He was $800 in debt to the village storekeepers; very rarely had he made corn and hay enough to last beyond March 1st; he did not believe that his land was "corn-land." He took no papers and read no bulletins.

Demonstration work began in his county in 1908; but our friend, sceptical and depressed, held aloof at first. Induced at length to participate, he applied demonstration methods to five eighths of an acre in cotton, from which, to his amazement, he gathered 500 pounds of lint cotton. His respect for the "government method," as it was called, increased. In 1909 his entire farm became a demonstration. Despite bad seasonal conditions, he averaged over 1,100 pounds of lint cotton per acre, against his neighbor's average of 300-400 pounds. He made, besides, 500 bushels of corn, and from one special demonstration acre realized 152 barrels of high-

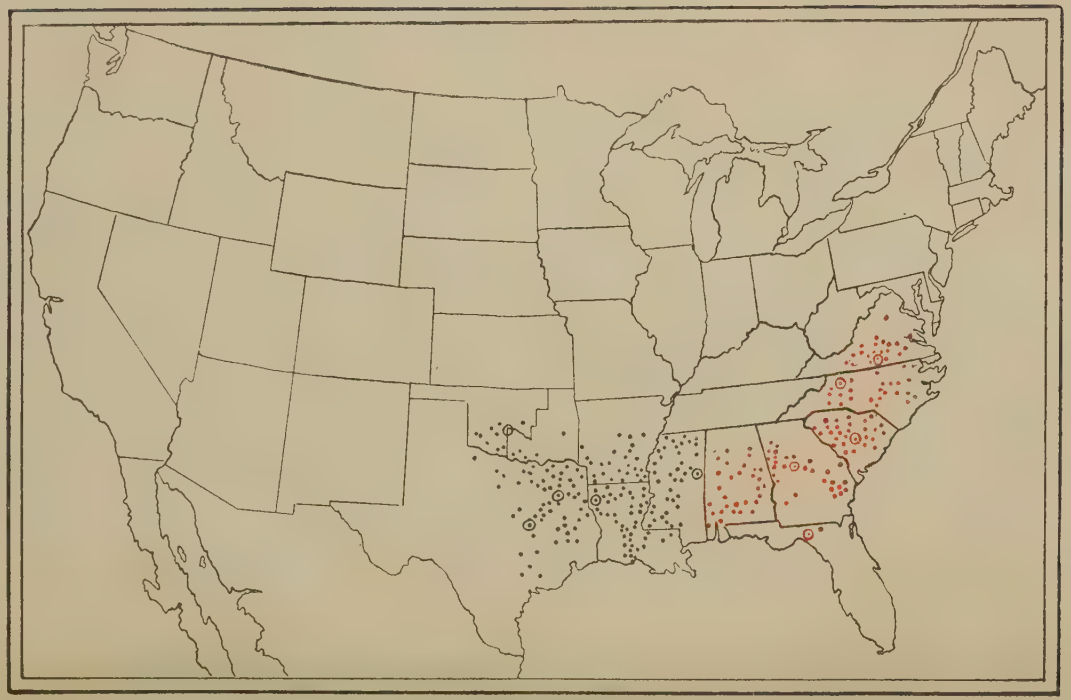
Demonstration cotton in boll weevil infested territory of Louisiana and Arkansas, 1912.

A contrast between demonstration and ordinary methods in producing cotton in North Carolina in 1910. The demonstration crop to the left will average between 1,400 and 1,500 pounds of seed cotton per acre; while the field at the right will make between 400 and 500 pounds per acre.

class seed which he sold for $300! His debts are now paid; he has cash in bank; his daughter attends Whitworth College; his sons ride daily to the town high school; he himself reads the government agricultural bulletins and subscribes for five agricultural papers. "It pays," as he says; but—in Dr. Knapp's words—"the man grew faster than the crop."

Pages might easily be filled with similar instances illustrating the transformation wrought by awakened interest and practical success; but we must content ourself with a single additional example: a poor "one-mule farmer" in South Alabama, "in debt and without hope"—a pronounced and generally accepted failure. It was hard work to induce him to undertake a demonstration crop; he had no faith in "book-farming," and thought he knew more about raising cotton than anybody from Washington. But he consented at last, and great was his surprise at the outcome. With a previous average of two fifths of a bale, or less, to the acre, he now produced eight bales on seven acres; with a previous record of less than eleven bushels of corn per acre, he now made fifty-two and one half on a two-acre plot. He closed out the entire output at fancy prices, receiving $865 as against $224.90 the year before. His conversion was prompt and complete. In a little speech at a field meeting he testified that "as a farmer he was just one year old." Now, in his third year, he has become local demonstration agent and is beginning to cherish legislative ambitions!

Figure 2.



Location of Agents Farmers' Coöperative Demonstration Work. Crop Season of 1909

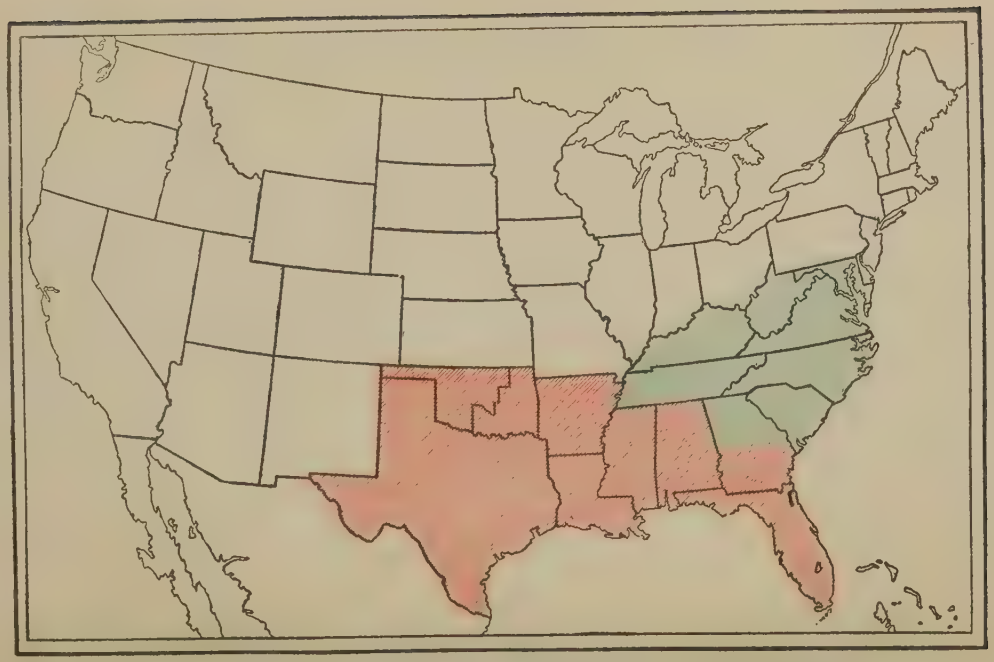
Black—Under Congressional Appropriation
Red—Under General Education Board

UNDER THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD THE WORK IS EXTENDED THROUGHOUT THE SOUTH

The coöperation of the General Education Board brought about an immediate and rapid expansion of the demonstration movement in every direction; it conquered new territory, dealt with a rapidly increasing number of activities, and touched more people. In 1907 only Texas, Louisiana, and Arkansas were worked by the national government; the appropriation of the General Education Board extended the work to Mississippi, Alabama, and Virginia; in 1908 the government made additional provision for Oklahoma; the General Education Board for Georgia and the two Carolinas. The next year the government took over Mississippi; the Board made provision for Florida. Government funds were next employed in Tennessee; the Board's in West Virginia and Maryland. At the close of the year 1913 the entire region covered by the farm demonstration movement was, in so far as the source of financial support is concerned, divided as follows:

Appropriations made by the General Government were expended in	Contributions of the General Education Board were expended in
Texas	Maryland
Oklahoma	Virginia
Louisiana	West Virginia
Arkansas	North Carolina
Mississippi	South Carolina
Alabama	Georgia (North)
Tennessee	Maine
Florida and Georgia (South)	New Hampshire

Figure 3.

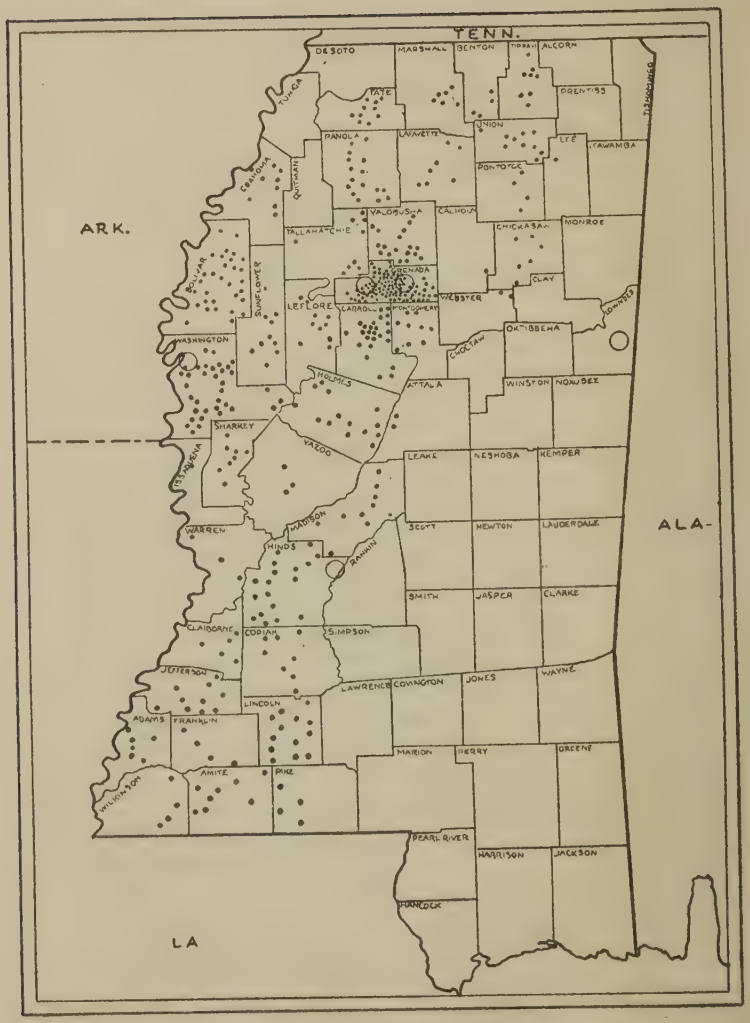


Blue indicates territory in which Farm Demonstration Work was financed by G. E. B.
Red indicates territory in which Farm Demonstration Work was financed by U. S. Government
Fiscal Year, 1913-14

The number of counties reached and the number of farms reached in each county increased with great rapidity. Eleven counties in North Carolina were dealt with in 1908; fifty-six in 1912; twenty-three in Alabama in the former year; every one of the sixty-seven in the state four years later. At the close of 1912, out of 1,163 counties in all the Southern states, farm demonstration work was in progress in 636, ranging from 100 in Texas to 5 in Maryland. In Alabama, every county was reached; in South Carolina, 95.4 per cent. of the counties; in Mississippi, 81 per cent.; in Arkansas, 77 per cent.; in Louisiana, 70 per cent.; Oklahoma, 55 per cent.; Florida, 54 per cent.; North Carolina and Virginia, 52 per cent.; Texas, 40 per cent.; Tennessee, 27 per cent.; Maryland, 21 per cent. Work has recently been started in six counties in Maine and in five in New Hampshire. In the New England States, however, the work is managed, not through the United States Department of Agriculture, but through the state colleges of agriculture.

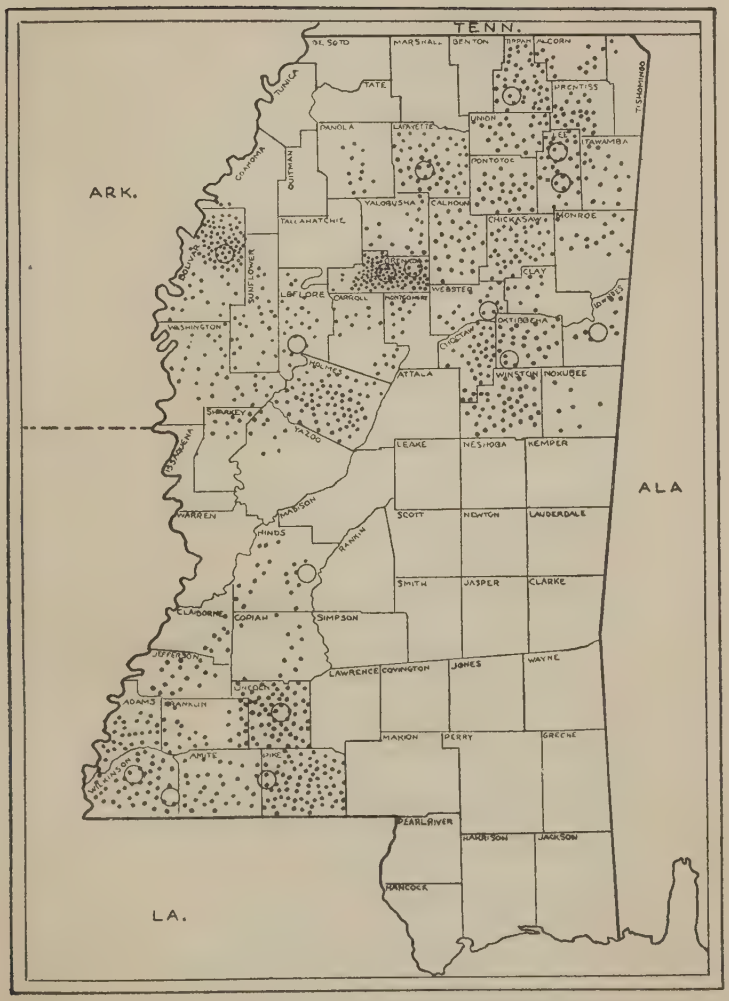
The expansion of the work is, however, most plainly reflected in the number of farms and farmers affected. In 1906, 545 farms were reached; a year later, 2,834; in 1908, something over 14,000; in 1910, 63,622; in 1912, 106,621. Twenty-five thousand adults were at the last-named date receiving instruction in Texas; over 15,000 in Oklahoma; over 15,000 in Arkansas; 10,500 in Alabama; 6,190 in Mississippi. Demonstration farms are now too thickly studded to show on a map of small scale; but the accompanying maps (4, 5, and 6) are inter-

Figure 4.



Location of Demonstration Farms in Mississippi, 1907

Figure 5.



Location of Demonstration Farms in Mississippi, 1908.

esting as indicating the rapid growth in number of farms and the contagious nature of the movement. The demonstration farm is naturally an object of local curiosity. By actual count it has been ascertained that from thirty to one hundred farmers annually visit each demonstration. On the basis of the lower average 360,000 persons saw the 12,000 demonstration farms cultivated in 1908.

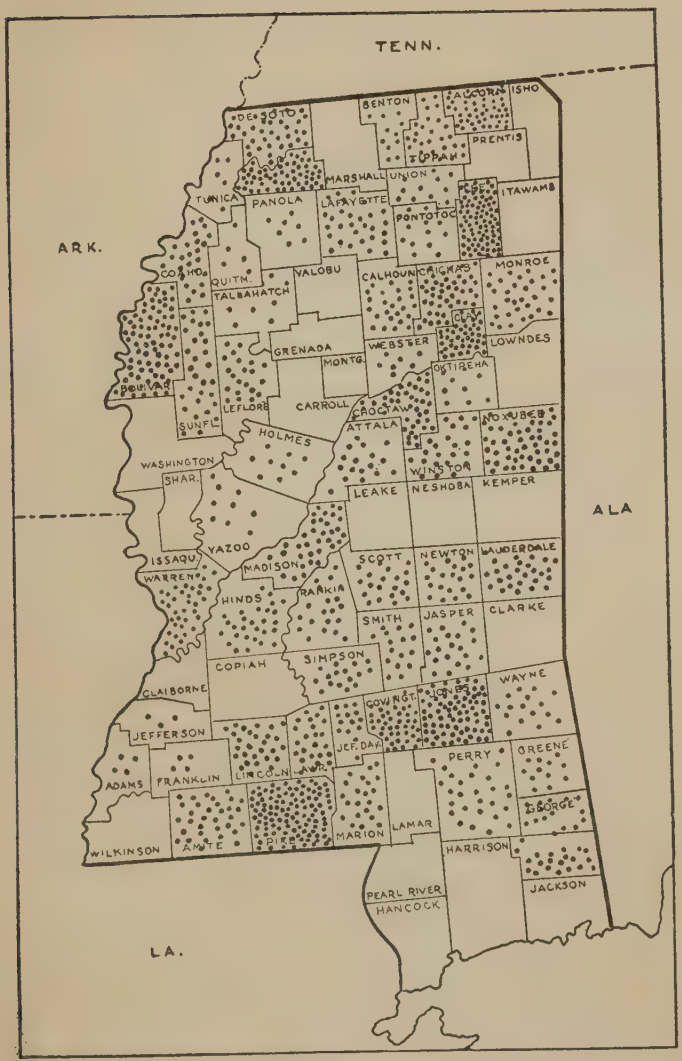
WORK DIRECTED BY GOVERNMENT

Attention has been called to the line of demarcation between the states in which government money and those in which the contributions of the General Education Board were expended. The constitutional scruple which suggested itself in reference to Federal support of purely educational work within the several states was thus continuously respected. The organization and administration of the entire work were nevertheless completely unified in the Bureau of Plant Industry of the Department of Agriculture at Washington. The several states had as such no way of knowing whether the demonstration work within their respective confines was supported by one party to the agreement or the other; all funds were disbursed by the Department of Agriculture; all appointments were made by the Department of Agriculture; all reports were made to the Department of Agriculture; in the Department of Agriculture complete administrative control was vested. From time to time the Secretary of the General Education Board conferred with the offi-

Demonstration peanuts near Comanche, Okla., 1912. The peanut is taking a prominent place in Oklahoma's diversification of crops.

Kafir corn, as one of the surer crops for the semi-arid section of Oklahoma. This is a demonstration near Ryan, Okla., in 1912.

Figure 6.



Approximate Location of Demonstration Farms in Mississippi, 1914.

cers of the Department in reference to the extension of the work to other states, its enlargement by new features, which will be shortly described, and similar matters, and duplicate copies of various reports were sent to the Board. But the General Education Board had no authority. Its sole desire was to facilitate the progress of the movement by supplying funds which, whatever the reason, neither the general government, nor the several states, nor other organizations or individuals, offered to furnish; and its ultimate object on account of which the work was originally undertaken remained, viz., the increase of the taxable wealth of the South in order—to quote Dr. Knapp's pregnant words that "schools should follow as the sequence of greater earning capacity and should not be planted by charity to become a tax on poverty."

ORGANIZATION OF THE WORK

The conduct of the work was placed in the hands of a special agent, reporting directly to the Chief of the Bureau of Plant Industry, and assisted by a corps of field agents classified, according to the territory assigned to them, as state, district, and county agents.[1] These agents are selected on the basis of special fitness and experience and are governed by instructions emanating from Washington. The size of the force grew with the extent of the work; it numbered only twenty-four, all told, in 1906,

[1] In Maine and New Hampshire the work is under the direction of the State Agricultural Colleges, as has been previously stated.

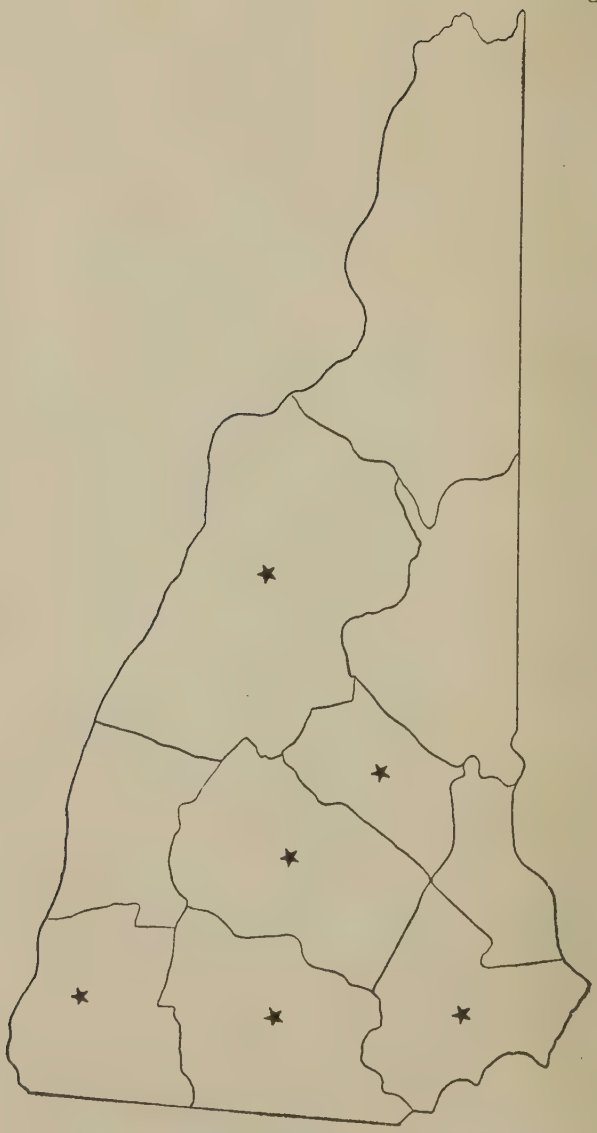
Field meeting on demonstration of David Johnson, Houlka, Miss. Field in cultivation over 100 years. This corn is estimated at 100 bushels per acre.

Agent of demonstration work, owner and overseer on the Grinnan Plantation at Terrell, Texas; 3,500 acres in improved varieties of cotton and corn.

Figure 7.

Farm Demonstration in the State of Maine.
(Stars mark counties in which demonstrations are in progress.)

Figure 8.



Farm Demonstration in the State of New Hampshire.
(Stars mark counties in which demonstrations are in progress.)

twenty of whom were supported by the government, four by the General Education Board; thirty-six the next year, twenty-one on the government pay-roll, fifteen on that of the General Education Board; one hundred and fifty-six in 1908, seventy-one paid by the government, eighty-five by the General Education Board. By 1912 there was a roster of 639 agents, not counting 155 agents assigned to the girls' and boys' clubs which were, as we shall see, an important outgrowth of the demonstration movement.

ENLARGEMENT DOES NOT AFFECT METHOD

Too often extension involves mechanization and consequent sterilization of educational method; with an increase of numbers, either inferior persons are employed, or verbal explanation addressed to masses supplants concrete experiment or demonstration. In the present instance no such deterioration has taken place. The instruction has remained concrete and individual; and the development on the social side has served only to inaugurate additional concrete and individual experiments. Four general field agents now keep the central authority in close touch with the work; they are on the lookout for local difficulties; in addition, they appoint times and places for bringing together state and local agents for conference and instruction. Thus the main principles of the work are constantly kept prominently before those on whom, in the end, success depends. Each state is supervised by its own state agent, assisted by district

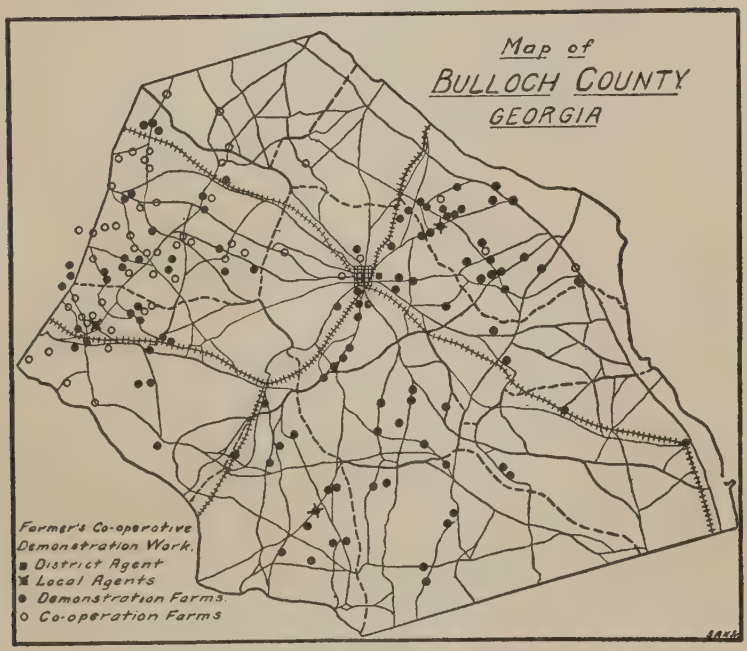
agents in charge of from fifteen to twenty-five local agents. The state and district agents make frequent excursions with the local representative, examining into the location of farms, assure themselves as to the quality of the local supervision, and communicate observations made in other sections of their territory. The local agent is absolutely responsible for the number and success of the experiments under way in his field; for the amount of enthusiasm generated; for the extent and variety of other activities, social and individual, following in its wake. The tests applied are throughout actual, and as long as this is the case extension involves no perils to the spirit and outcome of the movement.

APPROPRIATIONS: GOVERNMENT, GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD, AND OTHER SOURCES

The initial appropriation of the General Education Board in 1905 was $7,000. At that time the government was devoting $40,000 to demonstrations directed against the boll weevil. The Board appropriated $30,900 the next year, $76,500 two years later, $130,000 in 1911, and $252,000 in 1913. These sums were unevenly distributed: in 1908-9, $4,000 was spent in Florida, $15,000 in Virginia; the next year, $19,000 in Virginia, $30,000 in Georgia; in 1911-12, $23,000 in South Carolina, $25,000 in North Carolina. For the current year the appropriation for Maine was $19,500, for New Hampshire $10,000.

The following table summarizes the total cost of the

Figure 9.



This illustrates how the farmers of a county are reached.

Southern work thus far and shows the sources of the funds by means of which it has been carried on:

Year	Government	General Education Board	Other Sources
1903-04	$27,316.04		
1904-05	40,163.29		
1905-06	40,000.00	$7,000.00	
1906-07	40,000.50	30,900.00	$2,800.00
1907-08	85,901.85	69,300.00	4,200.00
1908-09	105,370.34	76,500.00	14,297.00
1909-10	229,449.17	102,000.00	33,714.41
1910-11	258,825.83	118,000.00	76,622.06
1911-12	363,792.19	130,000.00	175,054.13
1912-13	356,481.31	140,050.00	272,568.57
1913-14	375,000.00	252,000.00	[1]490,149.08
Totals	$1,922,300.52	$925,750.00	$1,069,405.25

By all odds the most important contributions are those designated as coming from "other sources." The government had in the first place undertaken to deal with the boll weevil; the General Education Board had supported a straightout educational application of the farm demonstration; and success had promptly achieved the most significant result that outside assistance can ever achieve —it had led the Southern people to help themselves out of the very first profits of their new insight. In less than a decade, "other sources"—i. e., the Southern people themselves, were paying almost 50 per cent. of a total annual expenditure approaching $1,200,000,

[1] Approximate.

thus vindicating the policy on which the Board had acted.

SELF-HELP

The tendency to self-help showed itself very early. Already in 1909, the Virginia legislature created an Agricultural Board with an appropriation of $15,000, which was used in actively supporting the demonstration work; more than a dozen counties made additional appropriations ranging from $300 to $500 apiece. In the same year, $5,360 was locally raised in North Carolina; $6,000 in South Carolina. The next year the Alabama legislature gave $25,000; the Arkansas legislature authorized coöperation on the part of the counties. In 1912, Georgia raised something less than $14,000, contributed by the State Agricultural College, various Chambers of Commerce, business men, and local committees. Funds obtained in this manner represent the conviction, effort, and sacrifice of those who are to be benefited—a moral as well as material contribution. The initial demonstration had to be financed from the outside, had also to be temporarily sustained from the outside. But from the moment that results appeared, local support was due. The preceding account shows how promptly and generously it came forth. In the end, the increased resources of the South will fully sustain whatever further demonstrations may be necessary. The whole incident furnishes a perfect illustration of the valuable part that can be played by private beneficence. Governmental bodies can with difficulty undertake educational experimenta-

tion on radically new lines; unofficial organizations are more receptive of new suggestions, can create here or there the conditions required for an experiment, and, as they are unhampered, can command the advice and the ability needed to inaugurate and to develop a novelty. A successful demonstration once made, the work can be turned over to the state, and the funds released may be devoted to the solution of other problems, handled according to the same general method of procedure.

RESULTS

Roughly speaking, it is fair to say that the demonstration method doubles the crop to which it is applied. In 1909, the United States Bureau of Statistics calculated that the average yield in pounds of seed cotton was 503.6 per acre; on demonstration farms taken by themselves the average was 906.1 pounds; in 1910, the figures were 512.1 and 858.9 respectively; in 1911, 624.6 and 1081.8; in 1912, 579.6 and 1054.8.

Corn makes a similar showing. The Bureau of Statistics reports an average of 16.7 bushels per acre in 1909 for states in which demonstrations were in progress; on these demonstration farms, however, the average was 31.7 bushels per acre; subsequent years were as follows:

	Average bushels corn per acre taking entire states	Average bushels corn per acre on demonstration farms
1910	19.3	35.3
1911	15.8	33.2
1912	19.6	35.4

Improved farming implements being explained to Negro farmers by colored District Demonstration Agent T. M. Campbell, of Tuskegee Institute, Alabama. This is the Jesup wagon, used in conveying from place to place good implements, stock, poultry, etc., that their advantages may be explained to demonstrators.

A field of prize rye grown under the direction of colored Demonstration Agent Jas. A. Booker (on left), Mound Bayou, Miss., 1910.

No matter how the figures are studied, the same equally favorable results emerge. In Mississippi, for example—to take a single state—an acre of land yielded in 1907 on the average 17 bushels of corn, or 228 pounds of lint cotton; a demonstration acre yielded, however, 35 bushels of corn or 445 pounds of lint cotton. In Alabama, in the same year, average acres yielded 15.5 bushels of corn, 169 pounds of cotton; demonstration acres, 37.6 bushels of corn, 428 pounds of cotton.

The poorer the season, the more clearly the demonstration method proves its superiority. The year 1911 was a poor one for crop raising in the South. Drought was severe and prolonged. In Texas and Oklahoma it was indeed the culmination of a dry period covering three successive seasons. Thousands of acres planted in corn produced nothing at all. Oklahoma, taken as a whole, averaged in consequence only 6.5 bushels of corn to the acre, Texas only 9. Yet the demonstration farms averaged 13 bushels per acre in Oklahoma, and over 22 in Texas. Under the unfavorable boll-weevil conditions in Louisiana, 33,022 demonstration acres averaged 1063.5 pounds of seed cotton as against an average of 522 pounds per acre for the entire state.

The work can also be viewed from the standpoint of the farmer's financial profit. In Alabama, for example, in 1912, the average yield of lint cotton was 173 pounds per acre; but demonstration acres averaged 428.3 pounds. Demonstration methods, therefore, netted the farmer 255.3 pounds per acre. At the average price of $65 a

bale for lint and seed, the farmer made an extra $33 per acre; as there were 8,221 acres under cultivation on the demonstration method, the total gain was $271,000. In the same year, 7,402 acres were under cultivation in demonstration corn. Demonstration acres averaged 26.9 bushels more per acre than the general average for the state. The demonstration farmers of the state pocketed $139,379.66 in consequence.

DIVERSIFICATION OF CROPS

Though corn and cotton have been most frequently instanced in this account, local conditions have been everywhere considered, and efforts to diversify production have been increasing. In Virginia, for instance, it was soon perceived that south of the James River the former tobacco lands, covered with sedge grass and pine brush, had been largely impoverished. The tobacco area had been gradually reduced. After studying the situation, it was decided to try the substitution of hay and corn for the tobacco crop, with the ultimate purpose of developing a dairy and stock country. Six years later, the general agent could report that in counties where demonstrations were in progress 15,000 acres were seeded to mixed grasses; that interest in grass culture was rapidly growing, and that 2,000 acres had been seeded in demonstration alfalfa during the past year. Similar phenomena could be cited from every other state. In South Carolina, for example, vetch, oats, rye, crimson clover, cowpeas, and hay are now raised on demonstration farms. The farm-

Annual Farmers' Conference, Hampton Institute, 1912. Crowd leaving Cleveland Hall at close of morning session of Conference.

ers of the state had previously been prejudiced against the cultivation of grasses. A regular campaign of education was undertaken. Two special demonstrators were enlisted; the seeding was done in late September, 1911; the hay cut and cured in the spring and summer of 1912. There were but two failures as contrasted with many pronounced successes. At a total cost of $41.20, one farmer near Lowndesville produced 12,300 pounds of hay worth approximately $125. In Maine, demonstrations were made in market gardening, orcharding, and potato growing, as well as in general farming; in New Hampshire, orcharding and dairying have been particularly emphasized. Meanwhile, whatever the crop, the demonstration agent is everywhere the evangelist of better things: "Our work is not limited to better cultural methods and to securing better crops," writes Dr. Knapp. "Every agent is instructed to insist upon a general clearing up of the farm and an improvement in all farm equipment, especially comfortable houses, better barns, stronger teams, better implements, removal of brush patches, and the establishment of good pastures."

Hence the beneficent results of the farm demonstration work are not limited to financial profit and cannot be entirely measured in money. The disorganization characteristic of rural life and of the agencies concerned with it tends to disappear before the types of coöperation and intercourse that the demonstration movement has initiated. Colleges of agriculture, farmers' institutes, and agricultural high schools have been brought into

increasingly intimate relation. These contacts are translating themselves into social and educational terms. Indeed the social and educational awakening of the rural South is to some extent at least a by-product of the coöperative demonstration movement.

DEMONSTRATION AMONG NEGRO FARMERS

The Negro farmer has been quick to take advantage of such opportunities in demonstration work as have been offered to him. In his very first report Dr. Knapp writes: "As the bulk of the cotton crop is produced by colored laborers and tenants, all our agents are not only instructed but of their own choice select colored farmers as demonstrators, visiting them regularly and giving them every attention." In some states, colored local agents work under the white state agent. At Mound Bayou, in the delta region of Mississippi, under a colored local agent, six demonstrations were started in 1907; forty-one were in operation the following year, and the sum of $50 was raised by the colored people themselves for prizes. In Virginia a somewhat different plan is pursued, a district agent, reporting directly to Washington, being in charge. Hampton and Tuskegee Institutes, and many other industrial and agricultural schools for Negroes, have played essential parts in this development. Their training has produced agents and teachers, who go out into life persuaded that the fate of the race depends primarily on improved economic efficiency. Frequently, throughout the year, the Negro farmers of the neighbor-

Negro demonstrator's home "Before and after." A little whitewash, a little cleaning up, and the fences straightened.

hood or state are brought together to see and to value each other's product. Pride and solidarity are thus built up.

The precise results due to demonstration efforts among Negro farmers are difficult to give, because many colored farmers are enrolled under white agents; but the number of colored agents is gradually increasing. In 1910 there were twenty-three; the next year thirty-two. At the latter date, 3,709 Negro farmers were reported by name, and it was estimated by the Department that 20,000 were under instruction. The results were as good as those obtained by the whites: in South Carolina, for example (where, by the way, 56 per cent. of the farms are operated by Negroes without white supervision), there were, in 1911, 570 acres of cotton and 449 acres of corn under demonstration by Negroes. The average yield per acre throughout the state was 795 pounds of seed cotton, and 18.2 bushels of corn: the Negro demonstrators averaged 1567.9 pounds of seed cotton, and 38.1 bushels of corn. The gain in money at current prices approximated $24,000.

Among Negroes, as among whites, the work tends to expand in scope. Demonstrators are instructed to procure information regarding the rural economy of the Negro farmers: how many plow in the fall, have summer and winter gardens, keep a cow, care for poultry, have pigs, etc. At Snow Hill, Alabama, the Negro demonstrators have formed a club and agreed on "a standard," requiring every member to possess an enclosed garden,

"in which something must be kept growing the year round; to keep at least one hog for each member of his family, not less than thirty hens, and one or two cows; to preserve or can fruits sufficient for the family's demand; to plant shrubs, and whitewash the house, and to take at least one agricultural paper." Local agents report many instances of improved farm equipment due to demonstration work: home gardens, wire fences, new mules, harvesters, riding cultivators, grain drills, enlarged houses, cleaned premises, and the liberal use of whitewash. The farm demonstrator and the farm demonstration arouse pride and stimulate energy. The net outcome has never been more picturesquely summed up than by a Negro farmer in Virginia: "You done turned de kivers down and waked us up."

The account above given must not, however, convey the idea that farm demonstrations now cover the field. This is not the case; the work is far from adequate to the need and the demand. Five hundred Southern counties had not been reached at all at the end of 1912; needless to say that perhaps no single county has been exhaustively worked and many have been barely touched. There is also every reason to believe that the demonstration method has significance for North, East, and West—not for the South alone. At best a substantial experiment has been successfully performed; it remains to make a general application of the method. Fortunately the value of demonstration has been so clear that the Federal Government will now take over and extend

A field meeting with the agents.

A boy's demonstration crop (1909).

purely educational farm demonstrations; success has dissipated the constitutional scruple that for the past ten years has restricted governmental activities in this direction to plague-infested states. Needless to remark, however, the final result will be disappointing unless the movement is dominated by the spirit which was infused into it by its founder; unless the same standards of fitness continue to prevail in the selection of the ever-increasing army of employees who will be required for its extension, and the same constant regard for concrete results remains the test applied to the outcome. On the other hand, the progress of the movement has itself created new problems; for the transportation and marketing facilities of the South are already inadequate to advantageous disposition of increased and diversified products. Thus in a living and developing society the solution of one difficulty invariably involves the creation of others. Meanwhile, Dr. Knapp's vision is fairly on the way to realization. "It will take time to transform the methods of the average farmer," he wrote at the outset, "but if our plans are persistently followed, the beneficent results are as sure as the light from to-morrow's sun."

BOYS' CORN CLUBS

The farm demonstration work was designed to reach adult farmers. Obviously, the need for instruction of this type would, in the long run, disappear if, so to speak, the farmer were caught younger. The boys' corn club was designed to accomplish this end. Sporadic clubs

had already been organized by a few county superintendents of education, when in 1908 Dr. Knapp appropriated and made the most of the idea. As far as possible, every boy should plant an acre of corn on his father's farm; in every neighborhood there should be a local boys' corn club; next, county and state organizations; finally, a federation of corn clubs, including every Southern state. Local, county, and state prizes should be awarded; the topmost boys should be sent to Washington, to meet the Secretary of Agriculture and to shake hands with the President. The expanded idea was an effort to appeal to the boy's imagination—assuredly an effective way of dignifying the farming occupation. But the shrewd old teacher knew that merely decorative distinctions would in the long run prove ineffective. The boy, therefore, was to sell his crop and pocket the money!

A club consists essentially of a group of boys varying in number from twenty-five to one hundred, and ranging in age from ten to eighteen. Corn and cotton are both cultivated, but corn is preferred: first, because the South needs more corn; secondly, because corn lends itself better to study and selection. As a rule, each member works a plot of one acre. The county superintendent of education is usually in charge. Appointed special agent of the Department of Agriculture with a nominal salary of one dollar a year, he obtains the franking privilege which enables him to procure reports from the boys and to disseminate information and instruction among them. But, more and more, other agencies also undertake to

Field meeting of a boys' club in Elbert County, Ga.

coöperate, prominent among them being state colleges of agriculture, of which nine were regularly connected with the work in the year 1912.[1]

The club enrolment has increased with great rapidity, as the following figures testify:

Year	Enrolment of Boys
1908	10,343
1909	45,000
1910	46,225
1911	51,178
1912	69,958
1913	91,000(approx.)

The growth of club work is itself the best proof of the enthusiasm excited and the substantial material results achieved. Nor has its influence been limited to the boys; for the crops raised have set new standards and opened new vistas for the adult farmer. In 1910, for example, the boys' clubs of Holmes County, Mississippi, averaged 76 bushels of corn per acre, while their fathers were averaging 16. In the same season, 100 boys in various parts of the South averaged 133.7 bushels, and one boy produced over 200; the following season, 100 boys averaged 137.48 bushels, 7 boys raised over 200; in 1911, 471 made over 100 bushels to the acre; in 1912, 493. In the awarding of prizes for these notable performances various factors are taken into consideration and credit is given accordingly: 30 per cent. is allowed for yield, 30 per cent. for the showing of profit, 20 per cent.

[1] The expenses of carrying on the boys' club work have been defrayed out of the appropriations for farm demonstrations.

for the best ten ears, 20 per cent. for the best written report. The standards are thus concrete, but not merely quantitative.

The instances above cited represent, of course, the most favorable results; but the general average of the boys is, as the following figures show, strikingly superior to results otherwise obtained:

State	Average Yield on Boy's Acre	Average Yield on Similar Lands
Alabama	62.3	17.2
Arkansas	49.5	22.
Florida	38.58	8.
Georgia	56.4	14.
Louisiana	55.32	20.24
Mississippi	66.3	18.
North Carolina	62.8	20.
Oklahoma	48.	22.63
South Carolina	68.79	18.5
Tennessee	91.46	35.5
Texas	38.	24.
Virginia	59.5	20.

The corn club, like the farm demonstration, is, however, at best as yet only a successful experiment; it remains to be extended and developed. There can be little doubt that, if wisely handled, this movement among farm boys of school age will be the means of enriching the rural school by associating it closely with the natural interests and environment of its pupils. The boys are "learning by doing." Instead of studying text-

Exhibit of corn at the local fair at Blackstone, Va., 1910, produced by members of the Boys' Corn Clubs under the Demonstration Work.

books on agriculture, instead of simply listening to explanation and exhortation, they are performing practical agricultural tasks—tasks which form the basis of school work on the subject. Meanwhile, the mere pecuniary outcome is far from negligible. The following incident is typical:

Driving through Macon County, Alabama, not long ago, two strangers observed, in a large field of ordinary corn, a patch standing out like a miniature skyscraper. They dismounted to interview the owner. A Negro boy approached.

"Is this your corn?"

"Yes, sir."

"How did you come to grow it?"

"One of Dr. Knapp's men showed me, sir."

"Why did you plant it so far apart in the rows?"

"Because, sir, most all that grows comes from the sunshine and the air."

"When did you plow?"

"Last fall, sir."

"Why?"

"To make plant food during the winter."

"Where did you get your fertilizer?"

"From the bottom, sir."

"How many times did you cultivate?"

"Six times, sir."

"Why?"

"Because there's water down next to the clay, and when I don't plow the sun draws it all away."

"When did you put in the cowpeas?"

"After the last plowing, sir."

"What did you do that for?"

"Because the cowpeas get out of the air nitrogen, and put back in the ground about as much as the corn takes out."

How many valuable lessons had this remote Negro lad learned from doing one job right! But this is not the end of the story. His double crop was worth $52. From his pocket he pulled a dirty little pass-book, the entries in which showed what the crop had cost. Reckoning his own time at ten cents an hour and his father's mule at a dollar a day, he netted a profit of $30 to the acre. His younger sister, it appeared, had had an equally profitable quarter of an acre in cotton. Three years later both were students at Tuskegee, paying for their education with the money earned as club workers.

GIRLS' CANNING AND POULTRY CLUBS

Father and son were reached by the methods above described; mother and daughter remained to be dealt with. "The demonstration work," wrote Dr. Knapp in his report under date October, 1910, "has proven that it is possible to reform by simple means the economic life and the personality of the farmer on his farm. The Boys' Corn Clubs have likewise shown how to turn the attention of the boy toward the farm. There remains the home itself—and its women and girls. This problem cannot be approached directly. The reformer who tells

Jerry H. Moore, of Winona, S. C., who made $228\frac{3}{4}$ bushels of corn on his demonstration acre, the highest yield reported for 1910, and next to the highest in the world's history.

the farmer and his wife that their entire home system is wrong will meet with failure. With these facts in view, I have begun a work among girls to teach one simple and straightforward lesson which will open their eyes to the possibilities of adding to the family income through simple work in and about the home."

Something of the kind had indeed already started near Aiken, South Carolina, where Miss Marie Cromer had purchased a canning outfit and organized some canning clubs among the girls of the vicinity, tomatoes having been chosen as the most available garden vegetable. Once more Dr. Knapp seized upon an idea, and in vision saw it encompassing the entire South. He saw in it a means of importing a new interest into the home, of bringing about coöperation in domestic tasks between mother and daughter, of encouraging rural families to provide better food at lower cost by utilizing orchard and garden products, of providing girls a way of earning money, of furnishing teachers a method of helping entire communities.

The method is simple: each girl takes one tenth of an acre and is taught how to select the seed, to plant, cultivate, and perfect the growth of the tomato plant. Meanwhile, portable canning outfits have been provided, to be set up out of doors—in the orchard or the garden—and trained teachers of domestic science instruct the local teachers in the best methods. When the tomatoes are ripe, the girls come together, now at one home, now at another, to can the product. It is done in the most up-

to-date fashion. The girls are taught the necessity of scrupulous cleanliness; they sterilize utensils and cans, seal and label, and indeed manufacture an easily marketable product. Naturally, other garden produce and poultry soon become objects of interest and care. A representative exhibit would contain pears and peaches, chow-chow and tomato soy, mustard pickles and pickled onions, corn on the cob and preserved plums. The girls write essays on the "Life History of the Tomato and Its Uses," "Gardening and Canning Arithmetic," "The Value of Vegetables in the Daily Diet," "How to Set a Table," "How to Cook a Piece of Meat," and so on. They have to draw sketches of their plots, to figure out and report on the cost of their crop and its market value. A prize is bestowed on the girl who gives the greatest number of recipes for the preparation of a given vegetable. All sorts of things thus immediately relate themselves to the job of canning.

The enrolment duplicates the experience of the boys' clubs. Three hundred and twenty-five girls were registered the first year; 3,000 the next; 23,550 in the year following; in 1913 there were upward of 30,000 in fourteen different states. This army of workers was under the general direction of the special agent in the Department of Agriculture in charge of the Farm Demonstration work, acting through the trained women who were the state and county agents. Headquarters were attached to the state agricultural college, a normal school, or other educational institution. Where the appointment of a

A club member and her well-tended plant full of fruit.

special agent was not feasible, the corn club agent served. By the close of the season 1912, 134 agents were in the field: 15 each in Alabama and North Carolina, 14 in Mississippi, 12 in South Carolina, and 11 in Georgia.

The entire expense of the Girls' Canning Club work has at all times been borne by the General Education Board except for local contributions. In 1911, an initial appropriation of $5,000 was made; $25,000 the following year; in May, 1913, the appropriation of the Board for this purpose was $75,000. Though the national government through the Department of Agriculture has had entire control and supervision, it has borne no part of the expense. The states in which the work is now going forward on this basis are Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Kentucky, Tennessee, Arkansas, Oklahoma, and Texas.

The average profit made by girls reporting in twelve states was $21.98; but not a few made sums far in excess. A Lincoln County, Mississippi, girl realized a net profit just under $100 on her 950 cans of tomatoes; a neighbor made 1,008 cans with a profit to herself of $77.73; a girl living in Aiken County, South Carolina, netted $60.51. Nor are these figures rough guesses. The accounts are, in these instances, carefully kept. They reckon rent, cost of preparing and cultivating the soil, fertilizer, cans, labels, labor, vegetables sold, vegetables used fresh for home consumption, etc.

The imponderable indirect gains are certainly not less important. Canning club day is a social occasion. Mother prepares something a little extra for luncheon, and asks the aid and instruction of the teacher in charge of the Canning Club. The home is "tidied up," tables are properly set out and decorated, bouquets of wild flowers appear here and there about the rooms. The boys come; mothers and fathers come; the neighborhood is there! Thus social interest is kindled about the doing of something worth while. There follows a spirit of mutual helpfulness, mutual concern, mutual affection. This sort of thing lays the foundation for coöperation in larger and more important things—in the church, in the school, in charities, in business. With the sharpened vision of a man nearing his end, Dr. Knapp saw all this. His last visit to the offices of the General Education Board was for the purpose of arranging the expansion of the girls' club work. He was already stricken with illness, but he was not too feeble to foretell what might be accomplished through this work for Southern womanhood. This was indeed his last legacy.

EDUCATIONAL INTERPRETATION OF THE DEMONSTRATION MOVEMENT

The facts above stated are not to be regarded as indicating an accomplished transformation. No such transformation has been achieved. The data merely show the existence now of numerous foci of fresh interest and activity, which, if multiplied indefinitely, seem

A Georgia canning club demonstration in 1912.

destined to bring about far-reaching material and social changes. In a broad sense of the term this is assuredly educational work of the most valuable kind. But, on closer scrutiny, it will appear that demonstration work is educational even in the narrower technical sense, and, as such, in line with the entire modern educational movement.

The work was not begun in pursuance of any educational theory. It embodied the reaction of a fresh mind applied to a specific concrete situation. In the first instance, an effort was made to deal with an unsatisfactory agricultural situation by improving the farmer himself. This was, in effect, to create a trade continuation school for agriculturists. The demonstration movement embodied, perhaps more or less unconsciously, the idea that a man is a single organic thing; that his education and environment are vitally related to each other; that this relation does not arbitrarily stop until he stops, as dead, or utterly unprogressive; that all his life a really live man ought to be gaining from his environment and reacting favorably on his environment; that out of this shuttlecock movement come increasing economic security, widening of horizon, and spiritual awakening. The trade continuation school is valuable because it favors this sort of growth for the urban artisan; the farm demonstration work has achieved precisely the same thing for the agriculturist. Neither Dr. Knapp nor those in the General Education Board who supported him foresaw all this; but the passing of a decade makes it plain to those who survey

the field in the effort to ascertain and comprehend what has happened.

The boys' corn clubs and the girls' canning clubs may be similarly interpreted. They were, as has been stated above, extremely unpretentious outgrowths of the demonstration idea. What more natural than that, after the father has been assisted to make more cotton and more corn and better cotton and better corn, the boy should be caught earlier, and the girl taught the domestic sides of improved agricultural processes? The authors of the scheme had no further educational philosophy as its sanction. Indeed, the educational philosopher must, like other philosophers, come after the event. The step was taken to meet a situation; and, like all sound steps similarly taken, it developed unsuspected significance.

The Southern club movements may contain the germ of the solution of the vocational problem in the rural districts. They take up relevant, vital, fundamental activities and make them part of the normal process of growth. The activities involved are useful; they are productive; they make for intelligent living in the child's environment; they increase his economic competency; they do not tie him to the soil, if any sufficient reason exists for his leaving it; they make him more contented and more efficient, however, if he stays there. They fit in with the more intellectual work in the schoolroom without overburdening the school by making it the sole custodian of the growing child, the sole sponsor for everything he gets—a tendency all too plainly evident in

A canning club member's plat of staked tomatoes, 1912.

urban education; finally, the clubs develop the capacity for united action and may thus prove the beginning of more effective coöperation in our future rural life. A serious problem would be solved if some form of vocational training could be found for the city boy that is equally simple, general, concrete, useful, profitable, broadening, and allied with other equally valuable concrete and social activities.

There is, however, still another aspect to be pondered. Too often the school devitalizes material in order to adapt it to what are supposed to be schoolroom requirements. Not only literature and history, but concrete things like physics and chemistry, are thus at times systematized to death. Manual training, though of undoubted educational value as sense and muscle training, has fallen short of the hopes based upon it, to the extent that it has been formalized. Industrial and vocational training is clearly open to the same danger; for the more or less mechanized imitation of industrial and vocational processes, apart from the exigencies and stimuli of real conditions, may prove to be only another kind of manual training. It is fortunate, indeed, that the rural situation is so far simple that it can be handled on the vocational side, without transferring everything to the school; indeed, without subjecting the vocational subject matter to the processes of refinement and abstraction that are all too apt to result in sterilization. The Southern club work has wholly escaped this fate, because it has been carried on in normal ways in its natural

habitat, and because its outcome has been subjected to the real tests of the market. The boys have cultivated a real acre apiece on the farm; the girls have cultivated a real tenth of an acre in the family garden. The boys have measured their corn in current bushels and sold it at market price; the girls have had to comply with the pure food law. The cash return has been larger or smaller, according to the quality and quantity of the result. The conditions have been precisely those prescribed by the task itself; the incentives have been precisely those that operate upon mature men and women, and the reality of both process and result grips the growing boy and girl. For this reason the club work is likely to be a determining influence in life; the activity is actual, the standards are actual, and the results—economic and moral—genuine.

IV. SECONDARY EDUCATION

AMERICAN education is organized in three divisions: the graded or elementary school, the high school, and the college or university. During the first two decades succeeding the war, provision was made by law in all the Southern states for the organization of public elementary school systems. In a subsequent section of this report[1] the state of elementary education in the South will be somewhat fully discussed. Suffice it at this point to say that elementary school systems existed in skeleton at least, and that in the cities especially these skeletons were in process of being endued with flesh and blood. Every state also possessed its State University, usually of antebellum origin, while privately supported colleges were then, as now, superabundant. Under this plan of organization the high school is of strategic importance. Without it, the elementary pupil lacks a powerful incentive to continue his schooling. Moreover, without adequate facilities in the form of secondary education, a competent body of elementary school teachers cannot be obtained in sufficient numbers; the elementary teachers could have only such education as is furnished by elementary schools, supplemented, per-

[1] Section VII (pp. 179-189), dealing with rural education.

haps, by a small amount of normal school training or a brief period in a "college" or academy. The proper development of elementary education is thus necessarily dependent on the vigor of the high school.

The college or university is equally dependent. It is not a question as to whether college standards are high or low; from the standpoint of educational organization this is not the main consideration. An effective college can be developed from any one of several starting-points, a two-year, a three-year, or a four-year high school. Essential only are the precision of the point of departure and close articulation between the two types of institution. A sound system of higher education presupposes the existence of high schools with adequate courses of study taught during a definite series of years by competent instructors. Without such facilities at the secondary school level the college must be formless and relatively ineffective. Thus, higher education, as well as elementary education, is peculiarly dependent on the high school.

SOUTHERN HIGH SCHOOLS

The educational surveys, to which repeated reference has already been made, dealt, therefore, fully with high school conditions in the several Southern states. A chaotic situation was disclosed. High schools had indeed been enumerated in reports issued by State Departments of Education and by the Bureau of Education in Washington. But these statistics were found to be

entitled to little credence. Though real high schools had been established in a number of cities, in general, even under the most favorable circumstances, a so-called high school was merely the addition of two or occasionally three grades, with as many rooms and teachers, to an elementary school. Even so, nine years ago, only some thirty or forty schools in Virginia could claim to offer two or three extra grades doing high school work; and in North Carolina, only thirty-five schools set up a similar claim. For the most part the "high school" reported in the statistics was shadowy and confused in the extreme. It had no separate rooms or instructors, no organized curriculum, no regularly organized classes, no differentiation of subject matter according to the qualifications of the teachers. Indeed, the subject matter was limited to what could be taught from textbooks to individuals or small groups; laboratory or other equipment, there was, generally speaking, none. In Alabama, to illustrate, 409 schools were reported in 1902 as teaching high school branches, but no information was obtainable as to what the branches were. There were, for the most part, no definite higher grades. At most, the figures mean that some pupils were studying under highly inauspicious conditions certain subjects not regularly included in the elementary course. Five years later a more critical estimate reduced the number of schools "attempting high school work" to something like a hundred, of which sixty-one were rated as "auxiliary schools of the State University." But even of these "the majority can

scarcely be dignified with the title of high school, so limited both in time and content are their 'courses of study.'" Outside of a small number of modest secondary schools in large towns, the Alabama high school was thus at this period nothing but a more or less uncertain addition to a primary curriculum.

Similar conditions existed in other states. Of the high schools of South Carolina, for instance, it was said less than a decade ago that "few offer a course of study of sufficient length; fewer than one fourth offer more than one course of study; in most, the teaching force is inadequate; and a few are entitled to be called high schools only by courtesy."

PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The lack of public high schools was temporarily, and for the most part very poorly, compensated by numerous private schools and academies, usually meagre in outfit and transient in point of duration. In North Carolina, for example, there were reported to be 486 secondary schools in 1900; three years later the same authority reports only 283, and of these, 135 were not contained in the previous list. Not infrequently, where the school endured even so brief a period, its name changed or its location shifted. In Alabama, 206 private schools enrolling upward of 8,000 pupils and doing both secondary and elementary work were reported in 1902; they were in the main the merest makeshifts, admittedly destined to "die when better public standards demand the develop-

ment of modern public high schools." Similarly, in North Carolina, even in the more important towns: while the Raleigh public school had, for instance, only seven grades, six private schools flourished in the town. Whereas in South Carolina private schools were less numerous and important, the "colleges"—superabundant as they were—operated "preparatory departments," despite the fact that the "college" was itself, as a rule, merely a sort of high school, "though not regarded as such." Altogether, they had little endowment; for the most part they were supported by fees modest in the extreme—$60 to $75 a year in towns, and $2.50 a month in the country. In general, no inference as to the character of the enterprise could be made from the title by means of which these schools were described. A few were semi-collegiate in character; a few were good, though narrow, preparatory schools; others were feeble schools of the same scope; many were hardly more than inefficient primary schools. They were largely without equipment of any sort; most of them offered no definite courses of instruction; commonly a single teacher—or perhaps two—tutored a miscellaneous aggregation of boys and girls of all sizes, ages, and degrees of competency in a bewildering variety of "subjects."

Particularly in Virginia and Tennessee, however, the private school was not infrequently a more substantial affair, though weak ventures were even in those states far too abundant. In Tennessee, Vanderbilt University, the first Southern institution of learning to promul-

gate and insist upon a definite basis for matriculation, had promoted the development of a number of efficient "fitting schools." The subjects taught were conventional in character—Latin, Greek, Mathematics, etc.—such subjects, in a word, as could be successfully handled in unendowed schools relying on fees for maintenance and profit. To meet the Vanderbilt requirements certain schools already in existence modified and stiffened their programs; and a considerable number of new schools were established and manned largely by Vanderbilt graduates for the express purpose of fitting boys for the university. Ninety-eight such schools, claiming property valued at $2,358,850, with 739 instructors and 17,508 students, were listed by the State Superintendent in his report for 1904, and the list was not exhaustive. In consequence of the growth of these sources of supply Vanderbilt was enabled as far back as 1887 to discontinue its own preparatory department. The fitting school could not, of course, take the place of the public high school; it was too narrow in scope, too limited in aim. It answered, at best, for those who could afford to pay the tuition and who expected to go to college. To the larger numbers who craved wider opportunities, who could not pay the fees or for whom the secondary school must itself be the educational terminus, the fitting school was ill-adapted. But it performed, nevertheless, a genuine service in emphasizing the necessity of separately organized and competently manned schools of secondary type.

COLLEGE AND SECONDARY SCHOOL

While the high school was, as has been stated above, confusedly involved with a poorly organized elementary school at one end, its relationship with the college was equally unsatisfactory at the other. Some of the state universities had indeed attempted articulation with secondary schools by arranging "approved" or "auxiliary" lists. But recognition of this sort at that time signified little or nothing. The universities had no adequate knowledge of, or influence over, the schools; the schools were too commonly powerless to improve themselves. Of forty-four such high schools on the approved list of the State University of Louisiana, eleven were attempting a course of study, complete on paper, in a shortened session and with a single teacher; eight of them enrolled fewer than fifteen pupils apiece; thirteen had no books of reference at all; twenty-six were without the least equipment for teaching physics; thirty-one were equally bare of equipment for teaching chemistry; in only six did pupils use note-books for their science work. Of an approved high school in Alabama it was stated at about the same date that the teacher had been able "by teaching two classes at the same time to have his pupils 'finish' the courses in the allotted time"; the school building was described as "dirty, ill-kept, and foul-smelling."

The foregoing facts are even now recited in no unsympathetic spirit. Under the circumstances nothing better could have been expected. Systematic public

education was a new thing in the South. It could not spring into existence, clearly organized, satisfactorily manned, and decently equipped. A start had to be made, and in the absence of buildings, teachers, money, and experience, this start was bound to be chaotic.

OBSTACLES TO DEVELOPMENT

High schools could not, however, be created out of hand. Even in the cities where school boards were more or less free to act, money, buildings, and teachers were difficult to procure. In the counties and rural districts these serious difficulties were often complicated by the absence of favorable sentiment or by statutory obstacles, now negative, now positive in character. Neither the Constitution nor the State School Law of South Carolina recognized the high school as an essential part of the school system, further than the mere grant of the privilege of establishing schools of secondary grade; and this indifference of constitution and statutes proved a complete block to development. The obstruction in Georgia was much more serious; for the law provided that "there shall be a thorough system of common schools for the education of children in the elementary branches of an English education *only*," and, further, that the "General Assembly shall *not* have power to delegate to any county the right to levy a school tax for any purpose except for instructing children in the elementary branches of an English education *only*." The State Department of Education could not support, as-

sist, or supervise public high schools, nor could counties or rural districts create and sustain them. Thus prohibitive obstacles were incorporated in the fundamental law of the State.

BEGINNINGS OF IMPROVEMENT

At the same time unmistakable signs of better things could be discerned. The Tennessee legislature had already authorized county courts to provide for the establishment and maintenance of one or more county high schools, by levying the necessary taxes, appropriating from money not already otherwise disposed of, and creating a special county high school fund; and several towns and counties had taken favorable action, though without concerted effort as to the length of the course, the curriculum, etc. In Mississippi, school trustees were authorized to establish in graded schools a high school course of four years or less with a seven months' term, to fix reasonable fees, if they so chose, and to admit pupils from outside the district on payment of a proper fee; but no provision was made for state direction, supervision, or support. In Virginia, a state subsidy to locally created and sustained high schools had been proposed in the legislature, though without favorable action on the proposition as yet. In Georgia, the university, which had never had a preparatory department, had taken hold of the situation, having appointed a high school inspector through whose efforts an accredited list of fifty-one schools, only five of them private, had been

got together. In this direction Mississippi had also been effectively busy. Observing that only 3 per cent. of those who passed through its preparatory department reached graduation, as compared with 25 per cent. of those who entered from outside schools, the university abolished the department in question in 1892 and threw itself deliberately on the secondary schools of the State. Coöperation between this institution, the State Department of Education, and the State Teachers' Association was brought about; the high school course of study was revised; members of the faculty visited schools, conferring with patrons and trustees; and an affiliated list was made out, on which, in 1902, there were fifty-nine schools. Thus, without especially favorable legislation, aggressive and tactful leadership on the part of the State University, in coöperation with other agencies, was beginning to produce results.

From these incipient endeavors to deal with the situation, the General Education Board took its cue. A sound secondary school movement had already begun; the project was therefore not a foreign suggestion, but of local origin. It was in essence the response of the Southern people to the increasing urgency of their own needs. But, for lack of resources and leadership, the local movement was making slow and irregular progress. There was, as a rule, no one whose business it was to inform, cultivate, and guide professional, public, and legislative opinion. There was need in every state of a trained specialist in secondary education, who, while sympathiz-

ing with local conditions, might skilfully and tactfully marshal all available forces for the purpose of securing concerted action calculated in time to realize a secondary school system.

THE PROFESSORS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Neither State Departments of Education nor State Universities had at the moment funds to devote to the promotion of such a program. At this juncture, the General Education Board stated its willingness to make appropriations to the several state universities for the salaries and traveling expenses of a professor of Secondary Education who was to be a regular member of the university faculty and whose "main and principal work shall be to ascertain where the conditions are favorable for the establishment of public high schools not now in existence; to visit such places and to endeavor to organize in such places public high schools in accordance with the laws of the State; to endeavor to create in such communities a public sentiment that shall permanently sustain such high schools, and to place the high schools under such local leadership as shall give them intelligent and wise direction, and he and the university shall exercise a fostering care over such institutions."

Consistently with the policy of the General Education Board, these professors of secondary education became state and university officials, answerable to their state and university superiors and to them alone. The Board did not dictate or suggest the lines along which they

should exert themselves. With a common general aim, the precise procedure followed was never the same in any two instances. The sketch above given will show how the local situations varied: here the law was fairly favorable, there fatally obstructive, in another place passively permissive. Here the field was more or less encumbered with private schools; there it was relatively open. In one state, sentiment was more or less favorable, and efforts were already making; another was indifferent; a third, perhaps, hostile. Under such circumstances, workers could share an ultimate ideal and could meet to exchange experiences, but they could not follow a single path. In any event, the General Education Board was satisfied to provide the necessary funds which would enable the State University, the State Department of Education, the high school representative, and other interested agencies to work out the local problem in whatever way their own judgment approved.

The first contract of this character was made in Virginia, in 1905; the latest in Kentucky, in 1910. Coöperative work in this field is now under way in the following eleven states: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia. In Louisiana, the work begun by the Board in 1907 has been taken over by the state.

THEIR METHODS OF WORK

In no state was a cut and dried program pursued. The professors of secondary education were in the first place

critical students, each of the conditions in his own state. Their reports contain accurate and detailed accounts of secondary education from the standpoint of law, local sentiment, the number and value of school buildings, school equipment, cost, curriculum, teaching, enrolment, etc. For the first time thoroughly reliable information procured at first hand became available; it was, moreover, diffused through special bulletins and through the reports of State Superintendents, so that the Southern people learned to face frankly the facts of their situation. In addition, the professors of secondary education were high school evangelists, traveling well-nigh incessantly from county to county, returning from time to time to the State University to do their teaching, or to the State Capitol to confer with the State Superintendent. Wherever they went, they addressed the people, the local school authorities, the county court, teachers, business men and business organizations, county and state conferences, etc. They sought almost any sort of opportunity in order to score a point. Law or no law, they urged their hearers to make voluntary efforts toward a county high school, if a start had not yet been made; to add a grade or a teacher to a school already started; to repair the building or to provide a new one; to consolidate weak district schools into a larger one adequate to town or county needs. Nor did they merely expose defects, tender advice, and employ exhortation: they not only urged a policy, but nursed a situation. By correspondence they kept in touch with places already visited; from

time to time they returned, to renew pressure or to recognize achievement. Especially in their earlier efforts they relied largely on the contagion of example, and skilfully played off one vicinity against another. By this method, five county high schools having been previously established, eleven more were started in Tennessee by the efforts of the secondary school representative in his very first year; thereafter counties were the more easily persuaded, coaxed, or shamed into activity. A small Virginia county seat had a $100,000 courthouse; bonds had been issued for that, for waterworks, sewerage, and electric lights; but six hundred children went to school in an obsolete and inadequate building. An agreement was practically extorted from the town fathers to preserve the next surplus for a high school and to utilize the credit margin still remaining for the same purpose. A North Carolina town of some 10,000 inhabitants, with fair private schools, had done nothing in the way of public schools. "Indeed there is a lingering prejudice against public education—a relic of the time when a public school was regarded as a charity school." A movement to set up public schools being endangered by local rivalries, the secondary school representative exerted himself to bring about harmony, and the election vindicated his efforts. Similar incidents might be quoted from every other Southern state.

The work has been extremely trying. Fortunately the men were young, hardy, and enthusiastic—pioneers in physique, as they were evangelists in spirit. "After

District High School, Clendeik, Kanawha County, W. Va. New building.

Public High School Building, Tupelo, Miss. Erected 1914.

breakfast, the County Superintendent and I"—so reads a characteristic report—"started across country to Fall Branch, seventeen miles from Jonesboro. We addressed a good crowd of citizens, and three members of the county court who were present promised to vote for the high school tax. At 3.30 we were due at a church twenty-two miles distant. The roads were very bad, our carriage broke down, and we failed to reach the church in time. Returning to Jonesboro, we had supper and drove to Telford, from which place we planned to get to Washington College for a night meeting. But transportation was lacking. It was dark and raining, but we walked three miles to the college, and found a good crowd waiting for us." The most isolated section of Virginia lies north of the York River and east of Fredericksburg. There is not a foot of railway in it, though it is rich in agricultural, fishing, and lumbering industries. "We found traveling difficult; naphtha launches, midnight steamers, relays of buggies had to be relied on. During one dusty day we traveled in three different vehicles, held three different meetings with school trustees, waited till midnight for a boat, rode till five in the morning, and after sleeping two hours, arose, held another meeting, and drove twenty miles to catch a train." In the summer of 1906 the Tennessee representative and the State Superintendent made a campaign that touched every county in the state. Its central purpose was to impress upon the people the importance of having a complete and well-articulated school system from the elementary school in

the rural districts through the high school and normal school to the university. The attendance at this series of mass meetings ranged from one hundred to seven thousand—perhaps one thousand being the average. The meetings began in Memphis, July 20th, and closed at the opposite end of the state just three months later to the day; seventy-nine towns had been visited and one hundred and fifty speakers had participated, the Governor, university and college presidents among the number. These efforts are fairly representative of one phase of the activities of the professors of secondary education.

FAVORABLE LEGISLATION

It was from the first clear that sporadic successes due to voluntary initiative on the part of interested communities would not suffice. They could, at best, whet the appetite for a substantial secondary school system. Aside from local benefit, they were, however, valuable because they reduced opposition to satisfactory legislation—constitutional or statutory as the case might be. Within less than a decade important legislative gains have been made. In Georgia the prohibitions above noted have been expunged from the State Constitution: counties and school districts may now vote local taxes by two thirds of those voting; under which provision thirty-nine counties and some nine hundred school districts have taken affirmative action. By two other amendments, the limitation of public education to "the elements of an English education only" has been removed; a State

Board of Education has been created, and a comprehensive system of licensing has just been started. Florida has amended its constitution so as to enable school districts to sell bonds to provide school buildings and equipment; and steps have been taken to insure higher qualifications for the teaching license. State grants in aid of high schools locally started, not yet brought about in all the states, are at any rate now made in South Carolina, North Carolina, Florida, Arkansas, West Virginia, and Virginia, while Tennessee has materially increased its allowance; qualifications for teachers in assisted high schools have been set up in Georgia, Arkansas, Tennessee, North Carolina, and West Virginia; county agricultural high schools have been established in Alabama and Mississippi; legislation favorable to the establishment of farm life schools and farm life departments has been passed in North Carolina. The foregoing account is not exhaustive; but it shows that the Southern states are now in a fair way to provide the proper basis for an adequate secondary school system.

It can fairly be said that in framing and putting through this legislation the high school representatives supported by the General Education Board have in every instance taken a leading part. They would, however, be the first to refuse any undue credit. The organizations already mentioned—the Peabody Board, the Southern Education Board, and the Conference for Education in the South—had greatly stimulated the demand for adequate and orderly educational facilities; in every

state, local bodies and organizations, state and local officials were working along one line or another to arouse educational interest. The secondary school men profited immensely by all this activity; at the same time they made their own valuable contribution by directing effort toward a definite and valuable object.

RESULTS

Favorable legislation has been generally followed by immediate results, so ripe was the situation everywhere for action. The Alabama law in regard to county high schools required that towns in which these schools are located must furnish at least five acres of ground and a building costing not less than $5,000. Eighteen counties promptly promised buildings costing $277,000, no place offering less than twice the minimum required by law; supplemental local appropriations for annual support to the extent of $1,000 to $2,000 were voted; and light, water, and fuel were also promised in some instances. The town of Prescott, Arkansas, was a disappointed competitor for one of the new State Agricultural High Schools, despite a generous offer of money and land. The citizens were, however, induced by the high school representative to turn over to the local school board what the state had not accepted; and the little town thus came into possession of a building costing $24,000, exclusive of furniture, a farm of thirty acres, a four-year high school course with electives in science, manual training, domestic science, and agriculture.

Clinton Public High School, Sampson County, N. C. Erected in 1912.

Murphy High School, Cherokee County, N. C.

The passage of a law marked the beginning of new endeavors rather than the cessation of old ones—endeavors to induce the communities to make the fullest use of the opportunities for high school development created by the legislation just obtained. The methods followed by the secondary school men may indeed be commended as ideally adapted to the promotion of educational and social reform. Their homes were in the states they served; they took up a sympathetic attitude toward local problems and conditions; acquainted themselves with the history and resources of the states; dealt candidly and plainly with every constituency—on the one hand without passion or sensationalism, on the other without the faintest suspicion of exploitation or the faintest imputation of self-interest; proposed measures that were within range of possibility, at the same time that they were essential parts of a far-reaching scheme to be developed bit by bit as opportunity afforded. In homely language, they have kept "pegging away," quietly, persistently, and with ultimate purposes far beyond the immediate propositions, the adoption of which they have urged at any particular place or any particular moment. Their progress has not been marked by explosions which shake a state like an earthquake, and are presently forgotten when some new exposure in another field takes place; but interest and enthusiasm have steadily grown on the basis of achievement, without any liability to reaction or any sign of revulsion of feeling.

NUMBER OF HIGH SCHOOLS

A few statistics will convey an idea of what has thus far been accomplished. It has been pointed out above that a decade ago or less, the four-year high school, properly so-called, was practically non-existent in the South outside a few large towns; that in general the high school was for the most part vague and formless. Though, as we shall see, the term "high school" does not yet mean the same thing or the same sort of thing everywhere, it is nowadays used in the South with a fair degree of critical caution. In this sense, since the appointment of the "Professor of Secondary Education," 174 four-year high schools have been established in Virginia, 110 in North Carolina,[1] 78 in Georgia, 88 in Alabama, 37 in Tennessee, 18 in South Carolina, 13 in Florida, 31 in Mississippi, 62 in Arkansas, 15 in West Virginia. Three-year high schools, many of which will shortly add the missing year, are numerous: Georgia has started 132, North Carolina 100, Arkansas 60, Virginia 146, West Virginia 12, Tennessee 37, South Carolina 88, Alabama 23, Florida 14.

STUDENT ENROLMENTS

With this development, the enrolment of pupils has kept pace. The high schools of Georgia enrol 25,000 pupils; those of Alabama over 20,000 boys and girls; those of Mississippi over 10,000; North Carolina, 8,500

[1] Of these, sixty-two are rural, forty-eight city, high schools.

in the country, and 8,000 in towns; Virginia, over 18,000. In Kentucky there has been an increase in attendance of 4,000 in three years. In the final year of the four-year high schools the enrolment is, of course, still modest: 550 in the rural high schools and 950 in the city high schools of North Carolina; 470 in South Carolina; 1,143 in Arkansas; in Mississippi, about 1,000; in Georgia, 1,241; in Tennessee, 715; in Virginia, 1,613; boys and girls are included in all these figures. The number of full-time high school teachers—teachers not distracted by having to do also odds and ends of primary work—is keeping pace; South Carolina employed 160 in 1906, and 412 in 1913—a gain of almost 160 per cent., indicative of a far keener appreciation of the importance of an adequately trained teaching body, for more and more of these full-time teachers are college graduates. In the same way Tennessee employs 392 full-time teachers in the 117 four-year, three-year, and two-year high schools established since 1905; Arkansas 106 in the 99 high schools set up since 1908. In Georgia full-time teachers increased from 149 to 443 between 1905 and 1914.

IMPROVED BUILDINGS

In this same period very considerable sums have been invested in new school buildings of improved type:[1] $1,750,000 in North Carolina, $1,500,000 in Florida, $1,265,000 in South Carolina, $2,500,000 in Mississippi, a little under $2,000,000 in Tennessee, almost $3,000,000

[1] Often used for the grades as well.

in West Virginia, more than $3,000,000 in Georgia, and more than $4,000,000 in Virginia.[1] The state apportionments in aid of high schools locally maintained are beginning to reach considerable dimensions; for this purpose, Alabama has already paid almost $1,000,000; Georgia, $659,600; Tennessee, $282,940; North Carolina, $500,000; South Carolina, over $300,000. Private subscription is perhaps most significant of all. In Alabama $685,000 has been thus donated, the relatively large sum being accounted for by the difficulties in the way of raising funds by taxation; in Tennessee, where taxation has been relatively liberal, private parties have contributed $172,000 toward high school buildings and equipment; in North Carolina, $250,000. A few cuts printed as illustrations (pages 84 to 98) convey some notion of the improvements now taking place in Southern school architecture. These buildings are, of course, still the exception; but they represent what is rapidly becoming a general ambition to dignify education by making the schoolhouse one of the most striking and attractive buildings in the community.

APPROPRIATIONS OF GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

The appropriations of the General Education Board in connection with the secondary school movement

[1] It will be understood that throughout the figures deal only with the period of activity of the professor of secondary education; this means since 1905 in Virginia, Alabama, Tennessee, Georgia, and North Carolina; since 1906 in South Carolina; since 1907 in Florida and Louisiana; since 1908 in Arkansas and Mississippi; since 1909 in West Virginia; since 1911 in Kentucky.

Marion, S. C., High School.

Paragould High School, Ark. Cost $30,000. Built in 1909.

above described have been as follows up to June 30, 1914:

State	Since	Total
Virginia	1905	$30,500.00
North Carolina	1905	28,250.00
Georgia	1905	17,840.00
Alabama	1905	26,624.99
Tennessee	1905	21,144.79
South Carolina	1906	26,166.67
Florida	1907	10,172.36
Louisiana	1907	14,000.00
Mississippi	1908	19,166.66
Arkansas	1908	18,875.00
West Virginia	1909	15,150.00
Kentucky	1911	14,000.00
Conference, September, 1913		970.62
	Grand total	$242,861.09

The foregoing account reveals a movement rich in promise. But the point adverted to in dealing with the farm demonstrations may well be emphasized anew in this connection. As yet only a beginning has been made. Eight years ago the term "high school" conveyed in the South no definite meaning; now it represents a fairly well conceived educational entity, the place, scope, and requirements of which are quite widely appreciated. The experience of Arkansas may be cited in illustration. There the endeavor has been made not only to add to the number of complete high schools and to get the children into them, but to give the term "high school" a clear, substantial meaning. The state aid law, passed in 1911, requires assisted schools to conform

to a standard in length of term, length of recitation period, number of teachers, course of study, etc. These requirements are defined by the State Board of Education, of which the professor of secondary education is not only a member, but the secretary and school inspector. The first year more than one hundred schools met the standard; now, after the law has been in force only three years, practically all high schools, whether receiving state aid or not, are organized and operated in accordance with the regulations of the State Board.

The vastness of the task still to be achieved is fully realized by those who have been the pioneers in the entire movement. Their reports from month to month and year to year emphasize again and again the defects and shortcomings characteristic of even a satisfactorily developing situation. The high schools are rarely full-grown; many of them are meagre; many of them have shot up almost too rapidly and must fill out in the coming years. Separate buildings are still relatively rare; a numerous, stable, and properly qualified teaching and supervising profession has yet to be created, even though a beginning has been made.

It is unnecessary in a volume of this kind to attempt an exhaustive discussion of even the more urgent high school problems with which the secondary school representatives are now dealing. But one or two may be singled out, on account of their more than local interest: and in the very first place, the question of the high school curriculum.

Knoxville City High School, Tenn.

Young High School, Knox County, used as a model for rural high schools now building in Tennessee.

THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

At the outset, the course of study of the newly established high school naturally follows conventional lines; this is indeed at once the easiest and the cheapest thing to do. The close relationship of the high school to the state university rather accentuates this tendency. For the university begins by formulating its entrance requirements in terms of the traditional cultural subjects. On the other hand, the extent to which the people have directly participated in demanding and paying for the new Southern high schools was bound to emphasize another aspect of high school usefulness. The Southern people want high schools not only as cultural luxuries, but as aids in the solution of political, social, and economic difficulties. The most casual visitor in the South must indeed be impressed by the well-nigh universal recognition there of the existence of problems bequeathed to the present and to succeeding generations by the collapse of the ancient social and economic régime. The South has been convinced that education alone can hope to achieve any kind of solution. Graded schools, high schools, and state universities have been supported with increasing interest and liberality on the basis of this newly acquired faith.

The high school curriculum must under these circumstances face both ways, whether its pupils subsequently attend college or not. It must make an immediate response to present local needs, whatever they are. It

must, on the other hand, be calculated to widen the scope of its pupils, to create fresh intellectual and spiritual needs not at the moment acutely felt. These two objects are not mutually repugnant to each other; indeed, the first is one of the conditions on which the development of the second depends. If the Southern school man has often been militantly aggressive in his criticism of the old-fashioned literary or academic course of study, it does not mean that he sees no good in it; he has only wanted to put it in its proper place, to deprive it of its monopoly, to make room for other types of wholesome activity, and to pay proper regard to the large numbers who never go to college. In every Southern state the high school curriculum has thus been thoroughly ventilated in the last few years; and with already noticeable results. At formal and informal gatherings efforts have been made to reach some agreement as to why this or that subject should be taught, how, and how much. The cause of the new interests—agriculture, domestic art, business methods—has been discussed earnestly and effectively. "The discussions revolved around the present course of study," writes one of the men at the beginning of his service, "an inelastic, hidebound thing, well enough adapted to the making of preachers, lawyers, and doctors, provided boys are so inclined, but wholly unfit for the teaching of agriculture in a practical way. As the representative of the State Department of Education I plead with all my might for the formulation and adoption of a new course of study in which agriculture, home economics, and

kindred topics should hold the central place. As a result, a committee was appointed to prepare such a course and to report to the next meeting."

The soundness of this point of view at this moment is now generally conceded by Southern educators. Tennessee has therefore wisely decided to duplicate out of the State Fund all local appropriations for the teaching of agriculture, domestic science, and manual training up to $1,500 annually; Virginia appropriated, in 1908, $20,000 for agricultural and manual training departments in ten high schools, and two years later doubled the sum. North Carolina encourages farm-life schools and farm-life departments in high schools, the state and county each contributing $2,500 a year for support. Georgia has created eleven district agricultural high schools, each enjoying an annual appropriation of $10,000; toward these the counties have contributed $830,000. Of the county agricultural high schools, those of Mississippi may be taken as excellent examples. Generally speaking, these schools, co-educational in character, are aiming to train intelligent farmers and farmers' wives. They have been built with distinct reference to the state's need. They are country-life schools in an environment where the rural problem is vast, promising, and as yet hardly touched. The course of study covers four years; every boy pursues agriculture, every girl home economics, through the entire curriculum. Biology, applied physics and chemistry, sanitation and hygiene, tool and bench work, blacksmithing, and the usual English branches complete the course of study.

These and other high schools are likely to become centres for many of the forces now stirring in rural life. The farm demonstration work may be connected with them; boys' and girls' clubs are so connected already. To helpful work of the demonstration type there need be no arbitrary limit. A resourceful teacher of domestic science in one of them immediately perceived that the type of domestic science which she had pursued at college was not adapted to this environment. She visited homes throughout the county in order to formulate her local problem. On the basis of that experience her girls have been trained to attend the sick with care and intelligence, and to bathe, dress, and prepare food and clothing for an infant. "I observed," she said, "that the rural sick suffer less from disease than from discomfort, and that the babies of the county need clean and intelligent management." Nor does it follow that education must be mean, unimaginative, lacking in ideal content, simply because it is mindful of such humble and vital necessities.

COLLEGE RELATIONSHIP

Attention has been called to the fact that at the outset the university and college influence made for a narrow course of study and so hampered the responsiveness of the high school to immediate needs. This has largely ceased to be the case, the colleges showing more and more disposition to enlarge the basis of matriculation. A very acute problem in respect to college and high school rela-

New building, District High School, East Bank, Kanawha County, W. Va.

New District Graded and High School, Princeton, W. Va.

tionship nevertheless remains. The South, like the country at large, maintains an excessive number of collegiate institutions; at the same time Southern high schools, as the figures above given show, are still graduating a relatively small number of fully trained pupils. If the Southern colleges all supported the high school movement and refused to receive students who had not passed satisfactorily through the local high schools, many of them would be without students; if the colleges are bent upon surviving, not a few of them must compete with the high schools for students. The more important institutions in every state have, generally speaking, cordially cooperated in reaching an understanding on this point. Conferences have been held and resolutions adopted condemning the practice of receiving students into college before they have finished the high school courses at their home schools. State Associations of Colleges have been formed to safeguard this policy. As soon as the situation permitted—sometimes even earlier—they clarified and raised their entrance requirements in order to effect a close and real articulation with the new high schools. But the institutions that have not pursued this policy, and that can pursue it only if they are willing to subordinate themselves to the general educational good, constitute a serious difficulty. They exist in every state. Especial efforts to procure and publish the facts have, however, been made in South Carolina. "Unless the territory of the high school and that of the college be clearly differentiated, and at the same time contiguous,"

writes the secondary school representative in 1910, "these institutions will be continually trespassing upon each other's territory." Annually since that time the bulletins of the University of South Carolina publish a list of college students "untimely ripped" by the colleges of the state from the high schools where they should have remained a year or two longer. In 1910, "out of more than 200 pupils reported by the high schools as having left before completing the courses offered, 82 entered colleges." In subsequent years the matter is pursued in even greater detail, the name of the pupil and his high school standing, together with the name of the college and the class to which he (or she) was admitted, being printed. The argument has been pressed with vigor and ingenuity. "More than one half the high school communities of the state are impoverishing their own high schools by taking their sons and daughters away and sending them to college at a heavier expense than the entire high school at home. It is strange that a man of ordinary business sagacity will take his child out of the high school, where it costs him not exceeding $25 a year, and send him off to college to do the same work at a cost of $250." Again: "Colleges do not hesitate to take pupils from different classes in the same high school and put them into the same college class. In several colleges, first-year, second-year, and third-year high school pupils are side by side in the freshman class." Efforts to complete the high school course are thus defeated: "We had to give up our eleventh grade; the

colleges have broken it up," writes one principal. "Our eleventh grade is very small; two colleges robbed us of our tenth grade pupils during my summer vacation," writes another. It is needless to quote further illustrations; but the problem must be borne in mind, for we shall return to it in considering the policy of the General Education Board in dealing with colleges and universities.[1]

HIGH SCHOOL CONSOLIDATION

There can, of course, be too many high schools, precisely as there are too many colleges. The consolidation of district into town or county high schools must therefore be an object steadily kept in mind. As soon as high school classes begin to multiply in scattered elementary schools, a campaign to concentrate the high school grades into a centrally located high school is in order. The teaching of high school subjects in one-teacher rural schools is still widely permitted, and with woful results. Hence, it is important to beware of excessive emphasis on the increased number of high schools; from time to time a fall in numbers would be more truly indicative of health. Laurens County, S. C., for example, supported at a total cost of less than $11,000 eight state aided high schools in 1910, with fourteen full-time teachers, and 338 pupils; yet not one boasted a fourth year. The substitution of a county for a district system would facilitate a process of consolidation through which two or three good and complete schools would supplant thrice the number of feeble

[1] See pp. 109-110.

ones. This policy has indeed been pursued in the newer states. Colorado, with three times the territory of South Carolina, and 4,000 more high school pupils in 1910, had 90 high schools as against South Carolina's 156.

Other difficulties attendant on a new and rapid educational development need not detain us now. It goes without saying that more and better buildings, more and better equipment, above all, more and better teachers, are needed. Emulation will in time supply the buildings and equipment. Efforts have from the outset been made to improve the present body of teachers, by normal training, by teachers' institutes, by summer schools, bulletins, and by special classes at the state universities and normal schools. A new agency, of whose beneficent influence high hopes are entertained, is the George Peabody College for Teachers at Nashville, which promises to address itself soberly and intelligently both to improving the present profession and to training a new and better one.[1]

[1] At its first summer school, just held, the attendance was over 1,200.

V. COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

THE situation in the United States in respect to the establishment and management of higher institutions of learning is unique. The universities of continental Europe are governmental institutions, supported by governmental appropriations and conducted by a department presided over by a cabinet minister. The contribution of private individuals or private organizations and associations in the way of gifts or even counsel is negligibly small. In England, ancient corporations furnished for centuries such facilities as existed for higher education; latterly, flourishing municipalities have bestirred themselves with notable results in the establishment of universities, the resources of which have been supplemented by grants in aid made by the national government.

THE AMERICAN SYSTEM

Our American system is much more complicated. Neither the national government nor any one of the states has accepted the responsibility of providing adequately for higher education. Some of the states do little in this direction, leaving practically the whole field to private initiative; even those states that maintain universities have never proposed to dispense with pri-

vately endowed and managed institutions; the general government has limited itself to the making of appropriations to agricultural and mechanical colleges, without, however, supervising the expenditure of the funds thus contributed.

Generally speaking, therefore, it may be said that in the United States there is a wide-open door in so far as higher education is concerned. Individuals and organizations are free to establish and support institutions of higher learning, and it is expected that they will do so. This expectation has not, as a matter of fact, been disappointed. In the first place, religious bodies have plentifully planted colleges and universities, in order to protect their several denominations and to secure a competently educated ministry. From these foundations, ecclesiastical in origin, many of the strongest and broadest of our higher institutions have developed in a comparatively brief space of time. Again, a majority of the states themselves have created universities by way of rounding out their several public school systems. Finally, a small number of strong institutions, independent alike of religious denominations and the several states, have been endowed by single individuals.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

Our easy-going treatment of this important matter has developed many advantages. People at large have been made to feel responsible for their own higher education, with the result that nowhere else in the world does

so much popular interest in higher education exist. An enormous amount of energy has been thus liberated; and sacrifice for ideal educational ends—a rare phenomenon in the rest of the world—has become usual in America.

It would, however, be idle to deny that very grave evils have also resulted. If only some general conception or purpose could from the outset have controlled the planting and development of higher institutions of learning, all might have been well. But no such ideal has at any time dominated or even greatly influenced the course of events. Political, local, denominational, and purely personal factors have too often proved determinative. Waste and confusion have been the consequence. States that might have developed a strong and symmetrical university as the crown of a public school system have often either multiplied institutions or split up the university into several fragments so distributed as to placate political sentiment; rival religious bodies have invaded fields fully—or more than fully—occupied already; misguided individuals have founded a new college instead of strengthening an old one. Thus institutions have been born which could not possibly grow up—superfluous institutions that interfere seriously with the nutrition of those really needed.

GOVERNMENT CONTROL

A problem that gravely concerns both the states and the nation results; for on the efficient organization of higher education depends not only the highest culture

of certain selected individuals, but the vigor and effectiveness of the primary and secondary school systems as well. The facts brought out in considering secondary education in the South—facts that can be more or less paralleled in other sections of the country—amply sustain this view. On the terms upon which the colleges admit students the quality and performance of the schools to a large extent depend. Moreover, the colleges train the men and women who teach in the lower schools; the competency of the colleges, therefore, determines the quality and performance of the schools.

There is no indication that in the near future either state or national government will fearlessly endeavor to bring order out of the chaos just described; our "open-door" tradition is too deeply rooted; too many vested interests have been created; too many incidental issues are involved. Best of all, too much that is admirable has come to pass under our present methods. The conditions that produced Harvard, Williams, Johns Hopkins, the University of Chicago, and half a hundred other well-established institutions of learning, are not to be lightly discarded. More especially in these days of large fortunes, nothing must be done to deprive private initiative of incentive and opportunity, or—more than all—actual responsibility. It is therefore not probable that the several states will soon utilize their authority to regulate the founding, development, and conduct of colleges and universities. Thus far, only a single state has created a department of education armed with anything

approaching adequate powers; and in this instance it has been found that these powers must be employed with the utmost circumspection. To state action, even in the form of control, there is, in any event, always the objection that it tends to decreased flexibility, thus lessening experimental activity and innovation amidst changing social conditions that cry aloud for both. Finally, whatever may be the case hereafter, up to this time the states have not generally shown themselves competent to deal with higher education on a non-partisan, impersonal, and comprehensive basis.

SCOPE FOR PRIVATE INITIATIVE

If private initiative can enjoy such immense creative opportunities in higher education, is it not conceivable that its collected experience may be brought to bear on the very problems that these same opportunities create? The field is rich and diverse; it contains state institutions, private institutions, and denominational institutions. Can not the responsible heads of such institutions, representing the widest contemporary experience and the soundest contemporary judgment, be brought to reflect on the conditions in which they all find themselves? An organization of this type represents another step in the evolution of private initiative—the effort, in other words, of freedom to control and guide itself. Such an organization would have no authority. It could, at most, hope to attain influence; and the extent of its influence would in the long run depend altogether on its helpfulness. A varied

membership would tend to eliminate irrelevant considerations and to make for the prevalence of broad views of educational policy. The presence of a strong lay element in its composition would tend to keep it responsive to public as well as to professional opinion. In a word, a body of this kind might hope to remedy some of the defects attending unhampered individual initiative by utilizing private initiative and its experience in another fashion.

THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

In respect to higher education, the General Education Board has sought to be useful to the academic departments of colleges and universities[1] in this way. According to the terms of Mr. Rockefeller's second gift, the Board was to assist "such institutions of learning as the Board may deem best adapted to promote a comprehensive system of higher education in the United States." From the standpoint of the amount of money appropriated and the amount of attention bestowed, this has indeed been the most important of the Board's activities. The general situation to be dealt with was already well understood. But systematic studies were at once undertaken for the purpose of learning the details in so far as colleges and universities were concerned. Efforts were made to ascertain the number of institutions of higher learning in the country, the purposes for which, and the

[1] The Board has as yet made no appropriations to professional departments, except medicine: See pp. 166-172. A single appropriation has been made to a technological institute, viz., $250,000 to the Stevens Institute of Technology.

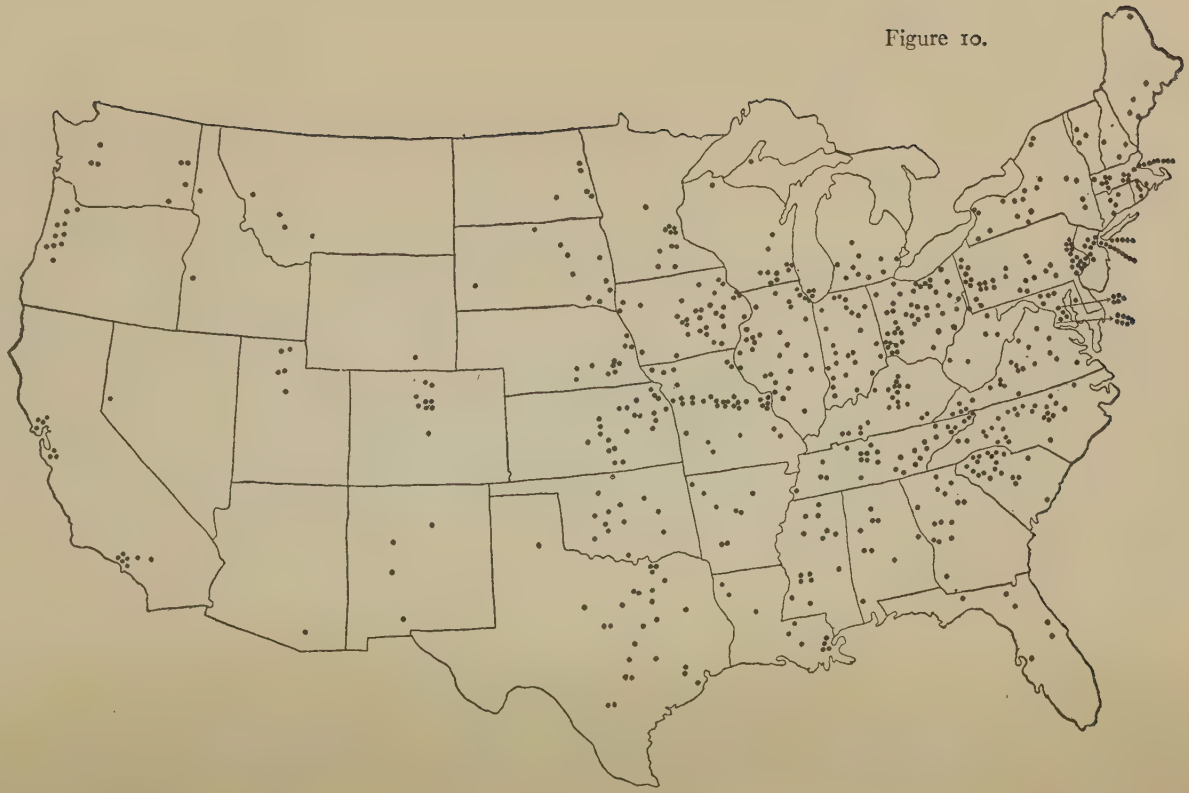
agencies through which, they had been chartered, their location, their resources, their possible sources of strength, and, with the utmost particularity, their relations to their respective communities, educationally and otherwise.

NUMBER AND CHARACTER OF COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Exclusive of technical institutions, there were in 1902 something like 700 institutions in the United States calling themselves colleges or universities. The geographical distribution of 687 of these is indicated on the accompanying map (Figure 10). A glance is enough to show the absurdity of the situation. Institutions in such numbers cannot be supported, cannot be manned, cannot procure qualified students. The State of Ohio, with a total population of 4,767,121, contains over 40 so-called colleges and universities, almost twice as many as the entire German Empire, with a population of 64,903,423; Missouri (population 3,293,335) contains 34, Pennsylvania (population 7,665,111) contains 41, Tennessee (population 2,184,789) contains 29, Maryland (population 1,295,346) contains 20, Iowa (population 2,224,771) contains 32; other states are in substantially the same position.

An examination of the scope and facilities of the above-mentioned institutions proved that many of them were hardly more than secondary schools, not always good secondary schools at that; and that others offered only one or two years of college work. Only a minority were

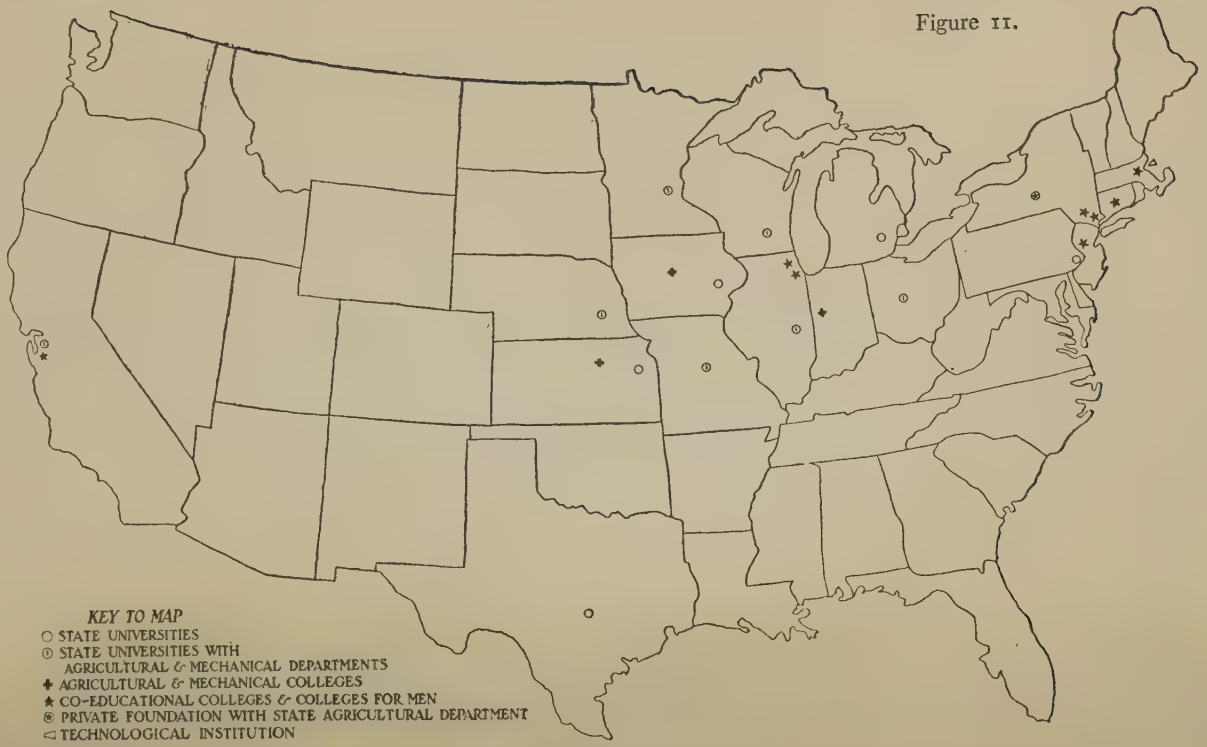
Figure 10.



Location of 687 institutions of higher learning which confer academic degrees.

rightly called college or university. A small number articulated definitely with the secondary schools of their respective states; not a few, however, competed with the secondary schools, "robbing local high schools of their pupils," as we have already learned. Very few were found to confine themselves to such work as they were equipped to do, or to work for which need and opportunity existed. Imitation had led some of the better to cherish unwarranted academic ambitions; well-nigh all were dangerously, and many were fatally, extended. It has been pointed out that no general design had controlled their location or establishment; harmonious relations did not even exist between institutions established under the same auspices—whether state or denominational; larger coöperation between all the institutions of a given state had not yet been thought of. Local, institutional, or denominational pride, vanity, or self-interest, propped up tottering, feeble, or superfluous institutions, some of them established in this or that state or county for no better reason than that a small town wanted one, or a rival denomination already had one. Of course worthier motives in abundance also played their part. Many of these schools, seriously defective according to modern ideas, had done good work under the pioneer conditions that have only lately passed away; splendid devotion and self-sacrifice had gone into their making, and their graduates had been important factors in the development of their respective communities.

Figure 11.


KEY TO MAP
STATE UNIVERSITIES
STATE UNIVERSITIES WITH AGRICULTURAL & MECHANICAL DEPARTMENTS
AGRICULTURAL & MECHANICAL COLLEGES
CO-EDUCATIONAL COLLEGES & COLLEGES FOR MEN
PRIVATE FOUNDATION WITH STATE AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT
TECHNOLOGICAL INSTITUTION

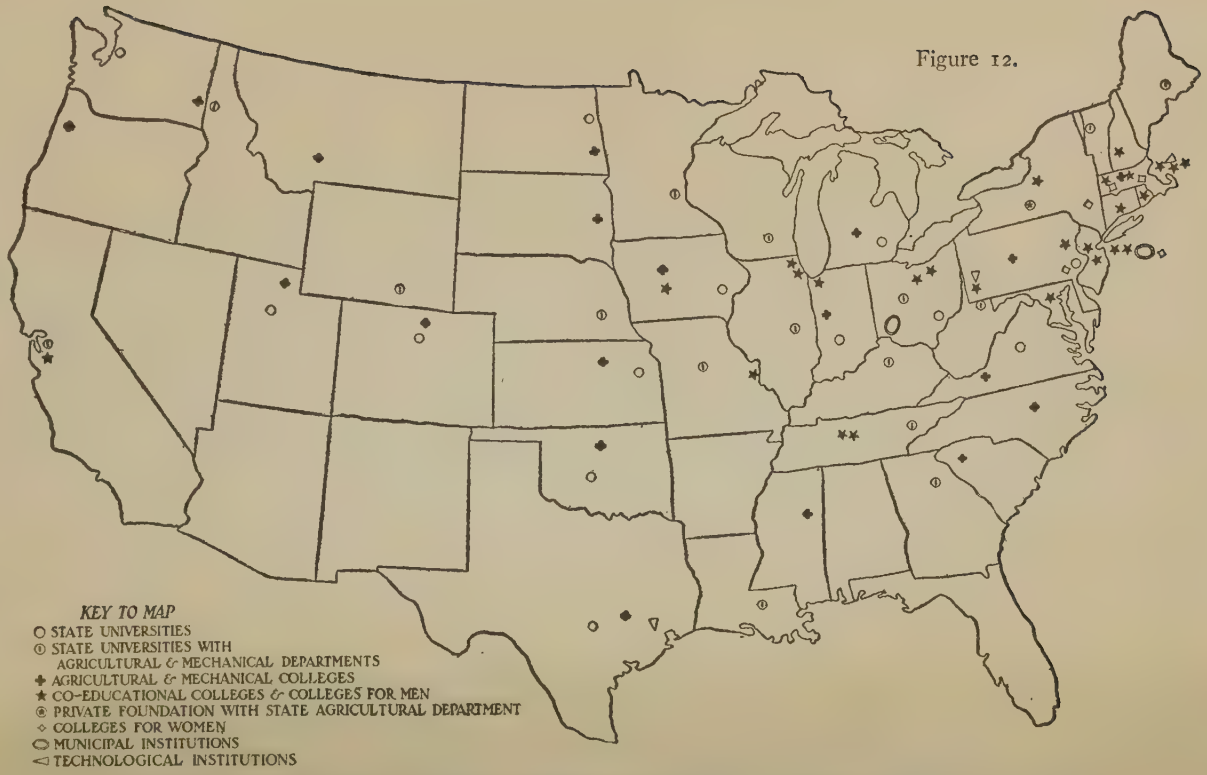
Location of 25 institutions of higher learning with annual income of $500,000 and upward.

FINANCIAL SITUATION

Meanwhile, whatever their origin and tradition, institutions were—and still are—generally suffering from the pressure of need. Financial strength and security are indeed far rarer than is commonly believed. In the accompanying series of maps an effort is made to portray the existing situation.[1] Only twenty-five institutions of higher learning located in seventeen different states (Figure 11) enjoy total annual incomes from all sources —endowment, tuition, fees, etc.—of $500,000 or more. If this is regarded as too severe a criterion, assuredly a total annual income from all sources of $200,000 will in these days sustain only a modest university: forty states contain about eighty-five institutions receiving that amount or more annually (Figure 12). The time is fast approaching, if indeed it is not already here, when it will be conceded to be impossible for an academic institution to do justice to its students on a total income from all sources of less than $100,000 a year: considerably less than one fourth of our colleges and universities (one hundred and forty or thereabouts) now enjoy an income of that size (Figure 13). A very large number of institutions, some of them doing well, though clearly showing the strain, operate with an annual budget between $50,000 and $100,000 (Figure 14). One hundred and seventy-six have to live on

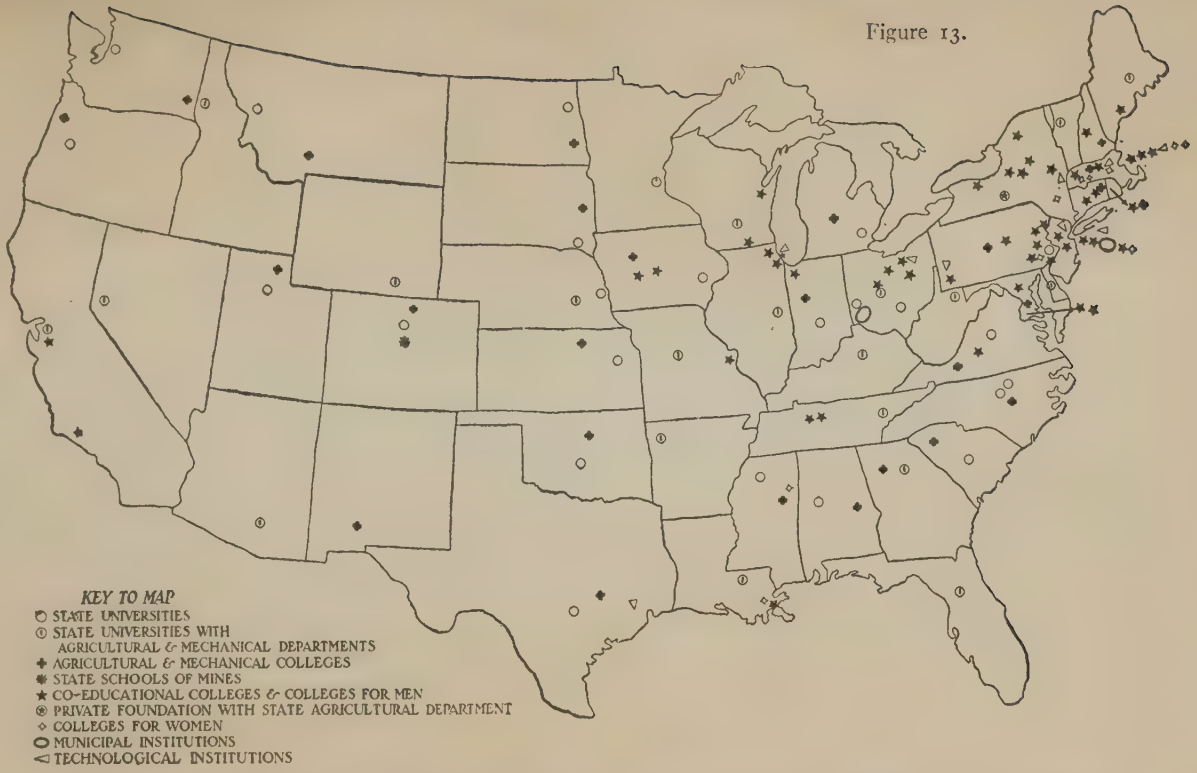
[1] Based on statistics given in the Report of U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1913.

Figure 12.



Location of 85 institutions of higher learning with an annual income of $200,000 and upward.

Figure 13.



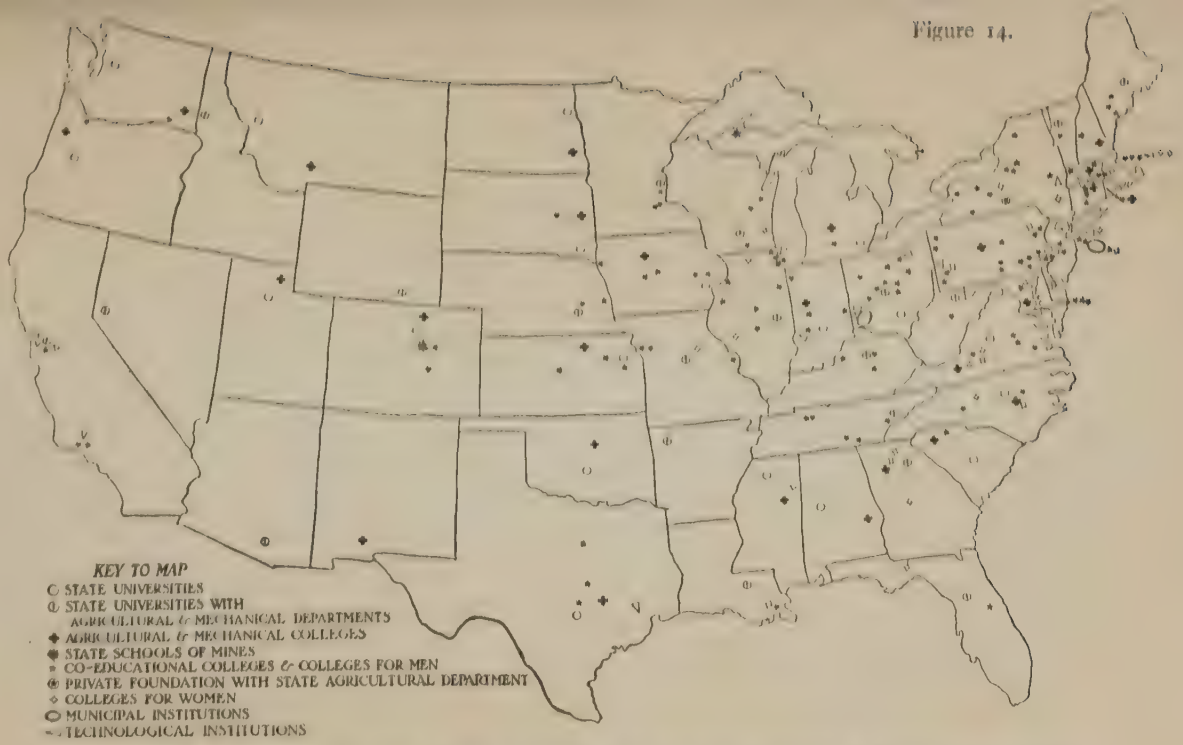
Location of 143 institutions of higher learning with an annual income of $100,000 and upward.

$25,000 a year or less—an absolutely impossible undertaking, if efficiency is to be secured (Figure 15). On this showing the necessity of strengthening colleges and universities on the financial side and of concentrating aid on those upon which the main burden falls is obvious.

POLICY OF THE BOARD

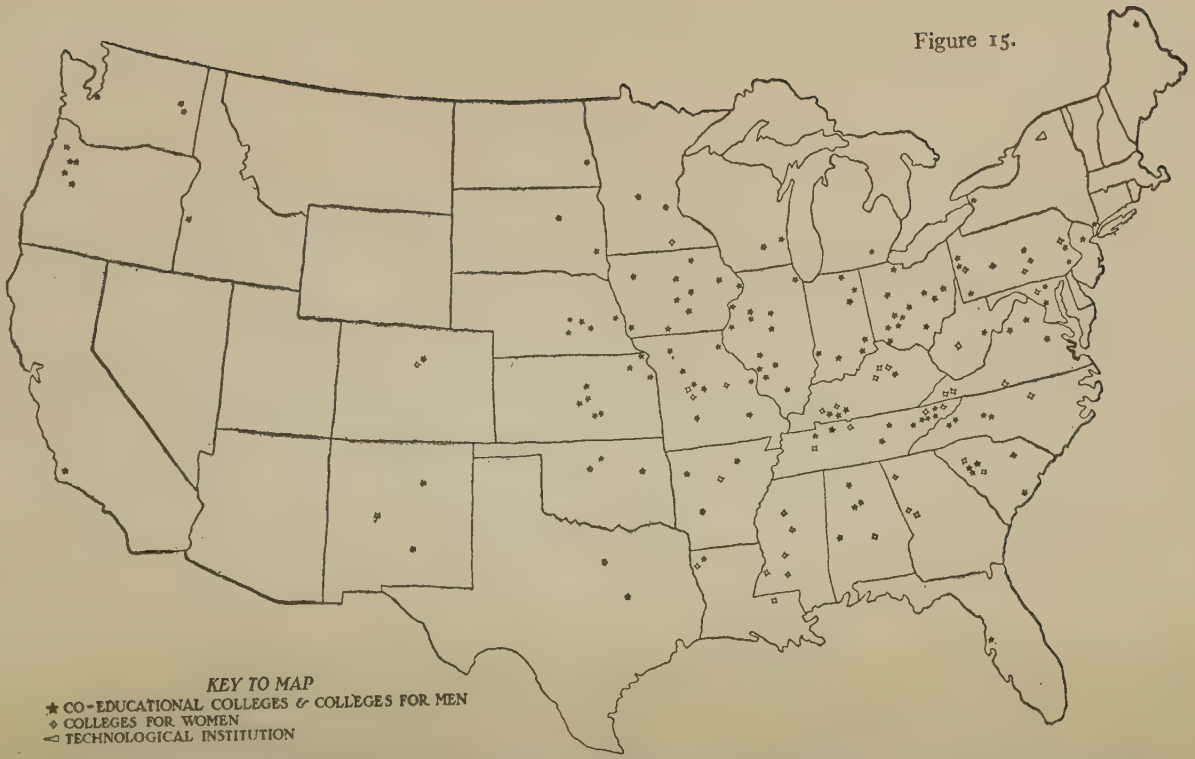
Whatever policy the Board might elect to pursue, two preliminary decisions were reached, neither of which has ever been departed from, either in letter or in spirit. The Board had no authority, and desired no authority; and its membership must be its sole title to influence. It was therefore resolved to put no pressure, direct or indirect, upon any college or university with a view to influencing its course of action; it was resolved that in making appropriations the Board would in no wise interfere with the internal management of an institution, and would incur absolutely no responsibility for its conduct in any respect. Informal discussion and conversation between the officers of the Board and college or university representatives have been, indeed, frequent, but the unanimous testimony of those participating declares that the spirit of the above-mentioned decisions has never been infringed. The General Education Board has left to the discretion of every institution with which it has in any way had relations complete power to shape its own course, externally and internally. It has held that the higher institutions of learning must in the end

Figure 14.



Location of 234 institutions of higher learning with an annual income of $50,000 and upward.

Figure 15.



Location of 176 institutions of higher learning which confer academic degrees, and which have less than $25,000 of annual income.

work out their own salvation, and that they are most likely to do this effectually if they are comfortable financially.

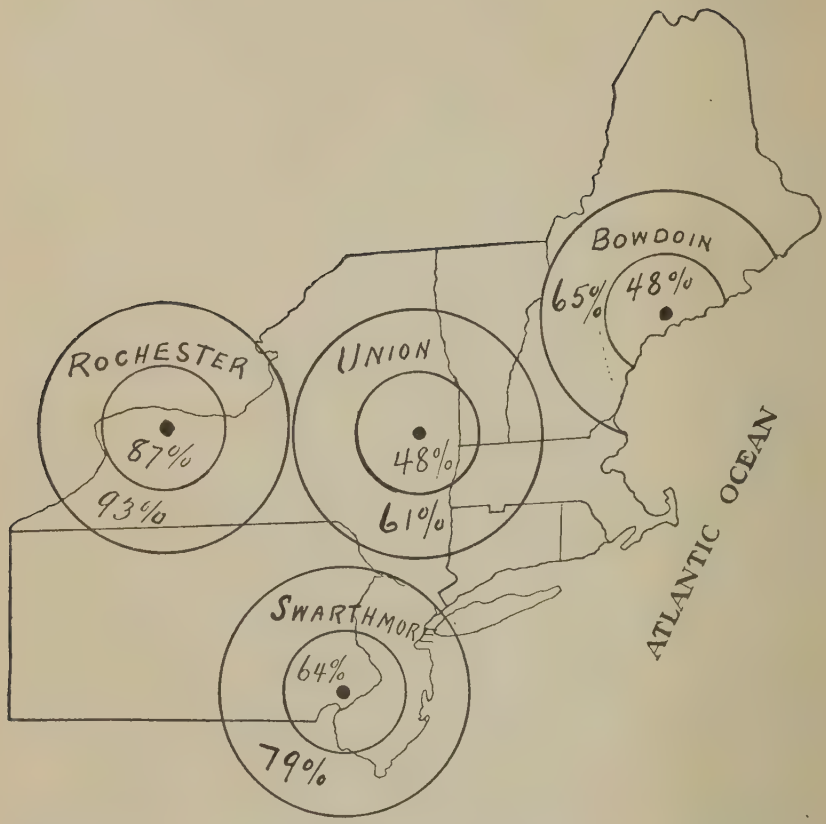
LAWS OF COLLEGE GROWTH

(*a*) *Importance of Location*

In the selection of institutions to be assisted, the Board has been guided by what appear to be the laws of college growth, as revealed by the experience of a century. The student of college development is struck at the outset by the fact that the subject must be approached, not from the standpoint of the Union as a whole, but from that of the several states. Education is, in the United States, a state function, precisely as it is in the various federated states abroad.[1] We can have only such a national system as results from adding together the separate state systems. Moreover, state lines have always counted heavily in determining the area of college or university influence. The state line is a formidable barrier. The circle from which a college chiefly obtains its students is rarely two hundred miles, and usually not over one hundred in diameter. If we draw circles around each American college fifty and one hundred miles from its halls, and trace every student to his home, we shall most frequently find the homes of the majority within these circles. Almost invariably the homes will be thick about the base of the institution, thinning out with distance. This marked tendency is equally strong in all sections of the country.

[1] For example, in the German Empire, Austria-Hungary, etc.

Figure 16.



Map showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles and enrolled in the four regular college classes of four colleges.

(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles)

NAMES OF INSTITUTIONS

Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Me.
The University of Rochester, Rochester, N. Y.
Union College, Schenectady, N. Y.
Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.

Figure 16, for example, takes at random four representative colleges in the North Atlantic region. From a semicircle—the other half of the circle falls in the Atlantic Ocean—with a radius of fifty miles, Bowdoin draws 48 per cent. of its regular undergraduate body; from little more than a semicircle, with a radius of one hundred miles, it draws 65 per cent. Union, Swarthmore and Rochester obtain respectively 48 per cent., 64 per cent., and 87 per cent. from within fifty miles; 61 per cent., 79 per cent., and 93 per cent. from within one hundred miles. In the case of Rochester, nearly one half the circle is cut off by Lake Ontario, but the local percentage is raised by the inclusion of women students, who necessarily come from Rochester only, since there are no dormitories for the accommodation of those from a distance.

In the South Atlantic section, three institutions (Figure 17), similarly chosen, sustain, on the whole, the same principle. One half the students of Richmond College live fifty miles or less from the college; a trifle less than three fourths, one hundred miles or less. Furman University derives 60 per cent. of its students from the smaller area, 72 per cent. from the greater. Trinity College, getting only 35 per cent. of its students from within fifty miles and 61 per cent. from within one hundred miles, is a partial exception, only because the State University and Wake Forest College, being so near by, drain the same area.

Vanderbilt University, Hendrix and Millsaps Colleges (Figure 18) in the South Central section, practically

Figure 17.

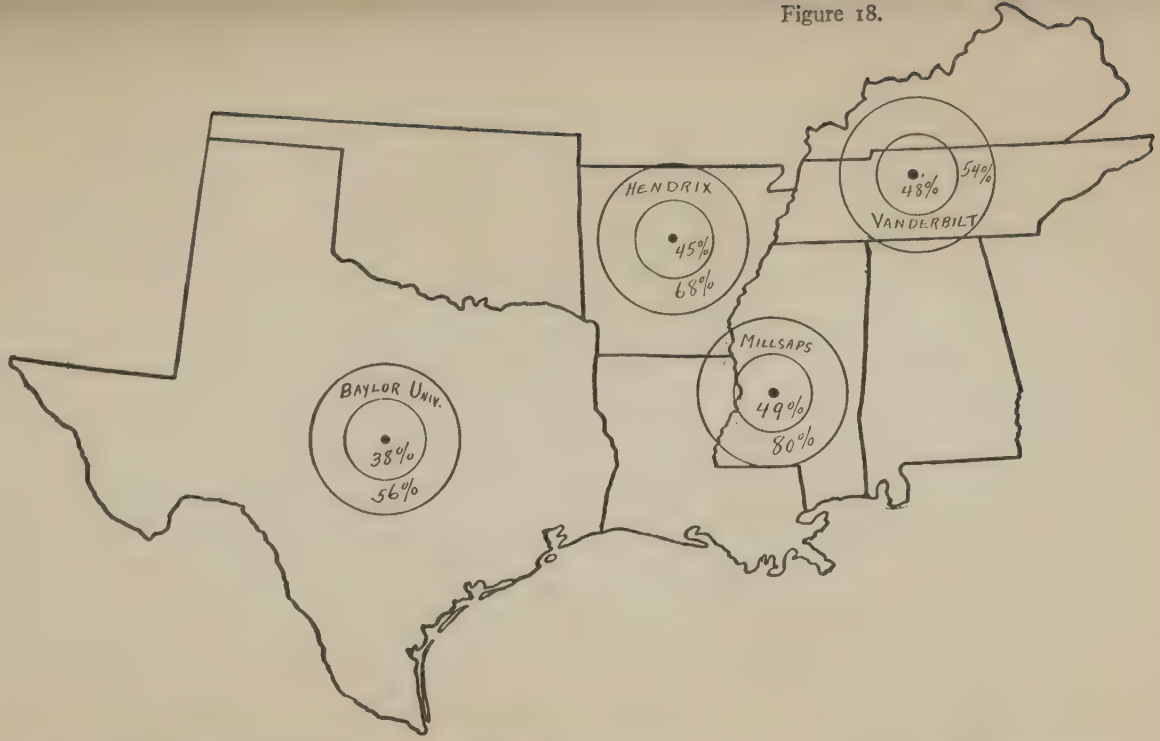
Map showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles and enrolled in the four regular college classes of three colleges.

(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles)

NAMES OF INSTITUTIONS

Richmond College, Richmond, Va.
Trinity College, Durham, N. C.
Furman University, Greenville, S. C.

Figure 18.



Map showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles and enrolled in the four regular classes of four colleges.

(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles).

NAMES OF INSTITUTIONS

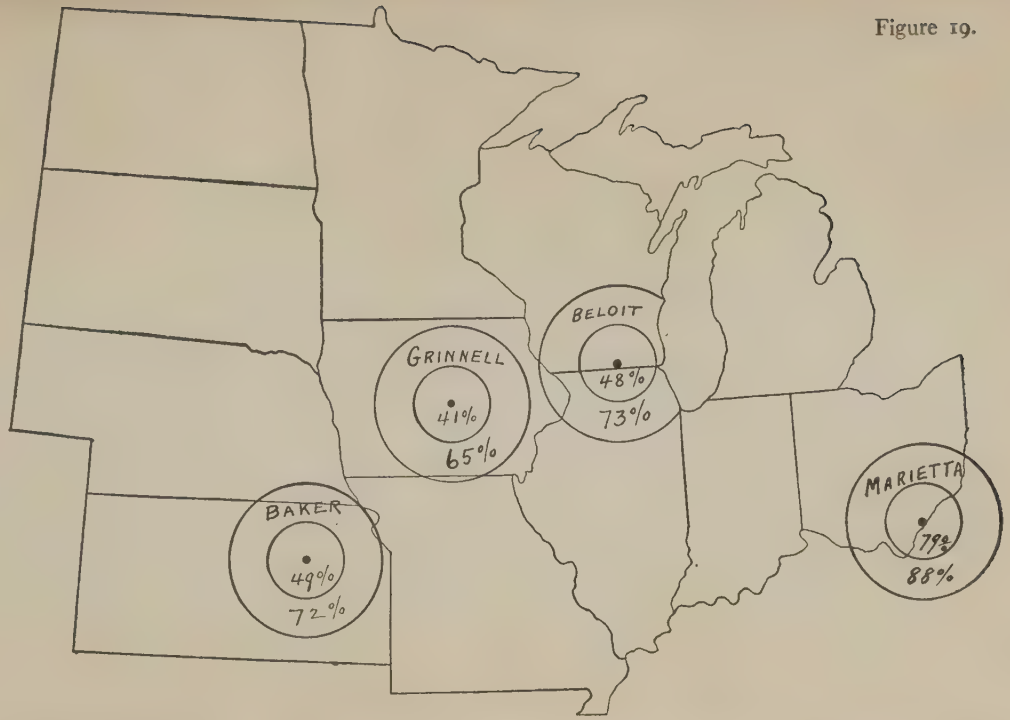
Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn.
Hendrix College, Conway, Ark.
Millsaps College, Jackson, Miss.
Baylor University, Waco, Tex.

conform to the same rule, with 48 per cent., 45 per cent., and 49 per cent., respectively, of their students coming less than fifty miles, and 54 per cent., 68 per cent., and 80 per cent. coming one hundred miles or less. Baylor University, located in the centre of an immense and thinly settled country, might be expected to draw less heavily on its immediate environment; yet 56 per cent. of its students reside within the one hundred mile circle.

The North Central section illustrates the same tendency. Beloit and Grinnell Colleges and Baker University (Figure 19) draw approximately one half their regular undergraduate body from the smaller of the two circles we are considering, and from two thirds to three fourths of them from the larger. Marietta, by reason probably of its close proximity to important West Virginia towns, draws over three fourths from the fifty mile area, and almost nine tenths from the one hundred mile area.

The extreme West is no exception. Whitman and Colorado Colleges (Figure 20) agree in obtaining 44 per cent. within the fifty mile radius; the former obtains 50 per cent., the latter 62 per cent., within one hundred miles. Pomona College, despite the fact that a considerable slice is cut off the circle by the Pacific Ocean, obtains most of its students (80 per cent.) from its immediate vicinity; less than 15 per cent. travel over one hundred miles. This extraordinarily high percentage is perhaps due to the fact that many families settle close to the college so as thus to obtain both climatic and educational advantages.

Figure 19.



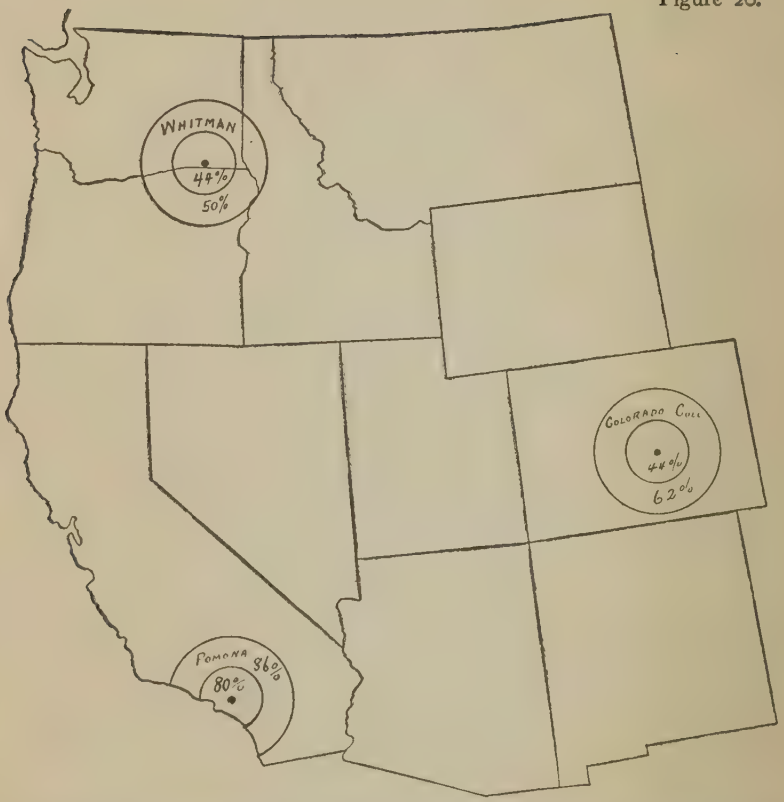
Map showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles and enrolled in the four regular college classes of four colleges.

(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles).

NAMES OF INSTITUTIONS

Marietta College, Marietta, Ohio.
Beloit College, Beloit, Wis.
Grinnell College, Grinnell, Iowa.
Baker University, Baldwin, Kan.

Figure 20.



Map showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles and enrolled in the four regular college classes of three colleges

(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles).

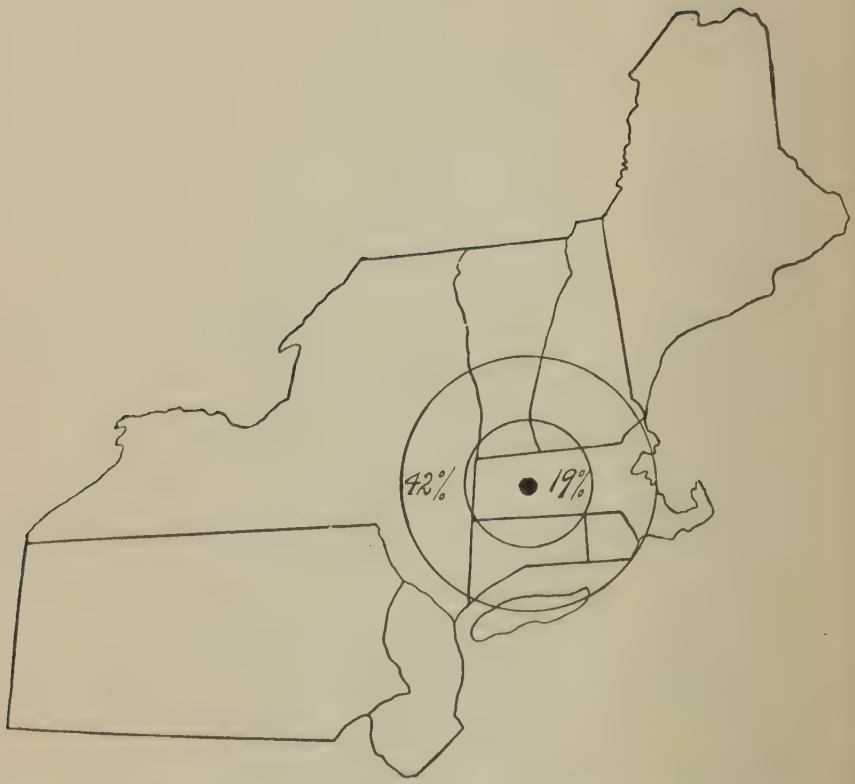
NAMES OF INSTITUTIONS
Whitman College, Walla Walla, Wash.
Colorado College, Colorado Springs, Col.
Pomona College, Claremont, Cal.

The importance of an institution, the need for its development, can therefore—other things being equal—be gauged by the possibilities of its immediate environment. Of what sort of field is it the centre? Is there promise of growth in population and wealth? These are the first questions to be put in attempting to define the present and future value of an institution "in a comprehensive system of higher education." They are not, of course, the only questions; under certain circumstances they may not be the most important questions. As the Board's influence tends to assist in reshaping conditions that have come about for historical and other reasons, simple schematic procedure is impossible; but it remains true, none the less, that location in a promising environment constitutes strong initial presumption of usefulness, while location in an unpromising environment is apt to prove a serious handicap.

Even a few miles may make a profound difference. A city is a more hopeful site than an adjoining suburb. Northwestern University at Evanston and Lake Forest College at Lake Forest, Ill., are both on the outskirts of Chicago; valuable as their work has been, they have not drawn large numbers of undergraduate students from the city of Chicago. The University of Chicago was located in the city, and has rapidly enrolled a numerous undergraduate body. Western Reserve College, removed from Hudson to Cleveland, has developed notably in size and strength.

Exceptions, of course, at once leap to mind: Dartmouth,

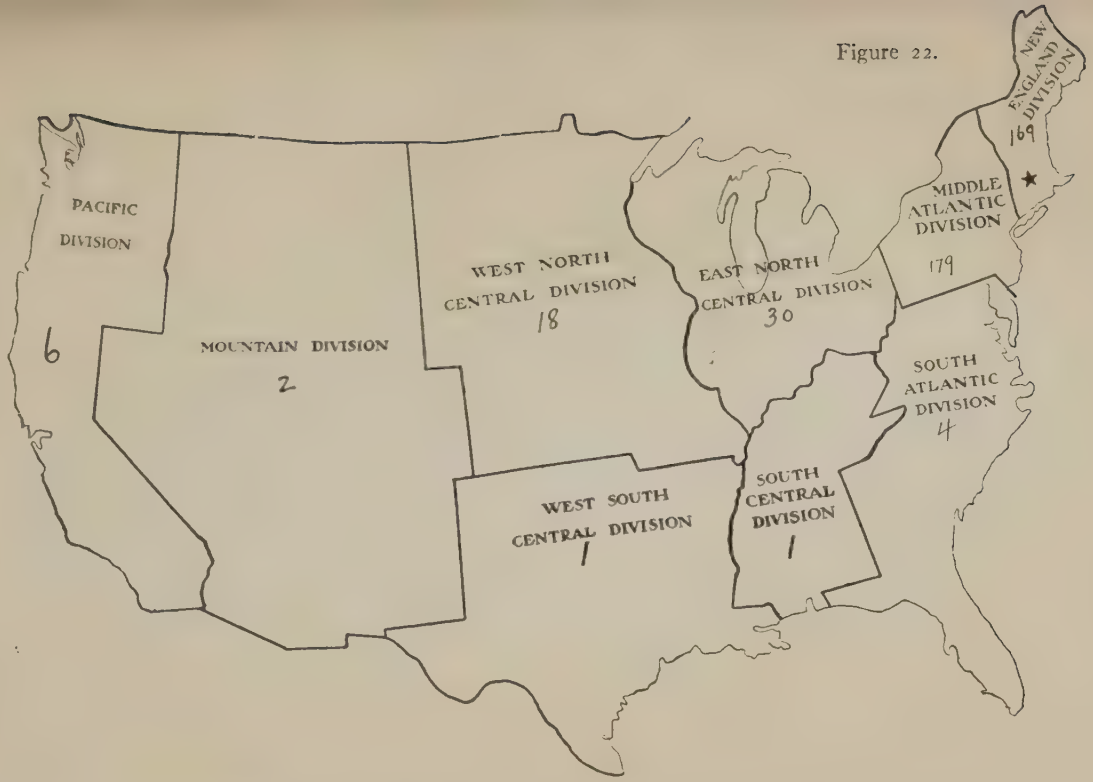
Figure 21.



Map showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles and enrolled in the four regular college classes of Amherst College, Amherst, Mass.

(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles)

Figure 22.



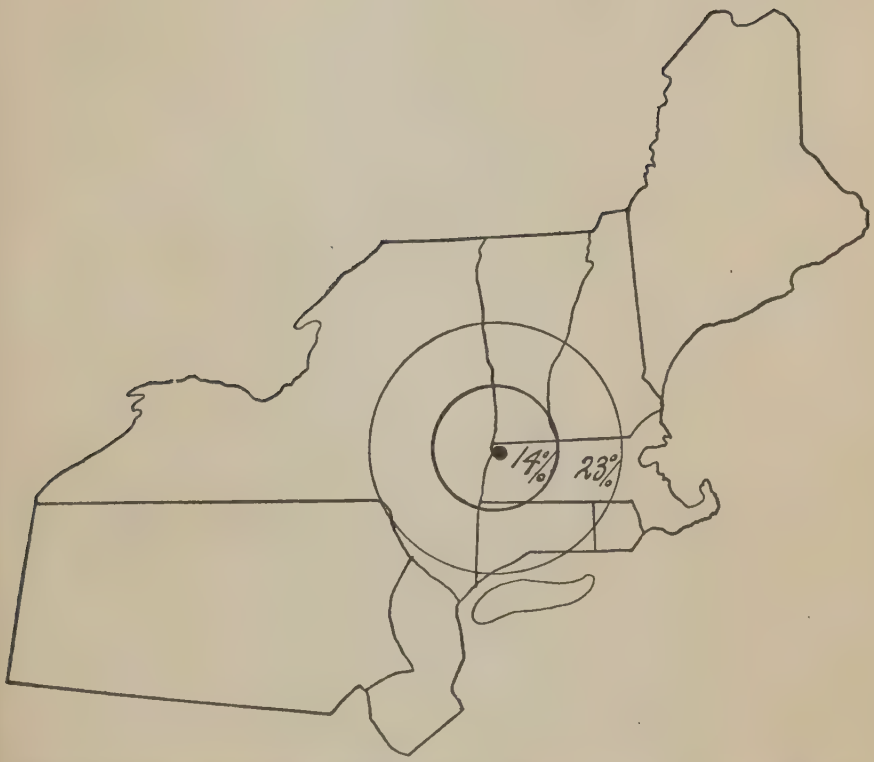
Map showing sections from which Amherst College, Amherst, Mass., derives its students.

(Star denotes the location of Amherst College)

Williams, Amherst, and others. These institutions, established before the growth of great cities with the industrial and social changes implied therein, had already acquired sufficient momentum to defy the tendency under discussion. They have strong support in a numerous, prosperous body of alumni, and rich historical, local, and personal associations, making their future alike useful and secure. Nevertheless, it is important not to magnify the extent to which even they are exceptions to the general rule. None of them are really national in scope. While Amherst College, for example (Figures 21, 22), draws less than one fifth of its students from the fifty mile circle, over 40 per cent. come from the one hundred mile circle, and 92 per cent. from the region east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio. The reach of Williams College (Figures 23, 24) is somewhat larger: only 14 per cent. come from the smaller area, only 23 per cent. from the larger; but 94 per cent. live east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio. Of the regular undergraduate body of Harvard College (Figure 25) 57 per cent. come from three fourths of a circle with a radius of fifty miles; 61 per cent. from somewhat less than a semicircle having a radius of one hundred miles. The comparatively small size of New Haven reduces Yale's draft (Figure 26) on the fifty mile area to 23 per cent.; but 47 per cent. live within one hundred miles.

The colleges for women belong to this category. The first foundations of this kind obtained relatively wide fame as innovations and naturally drew ambitious girls

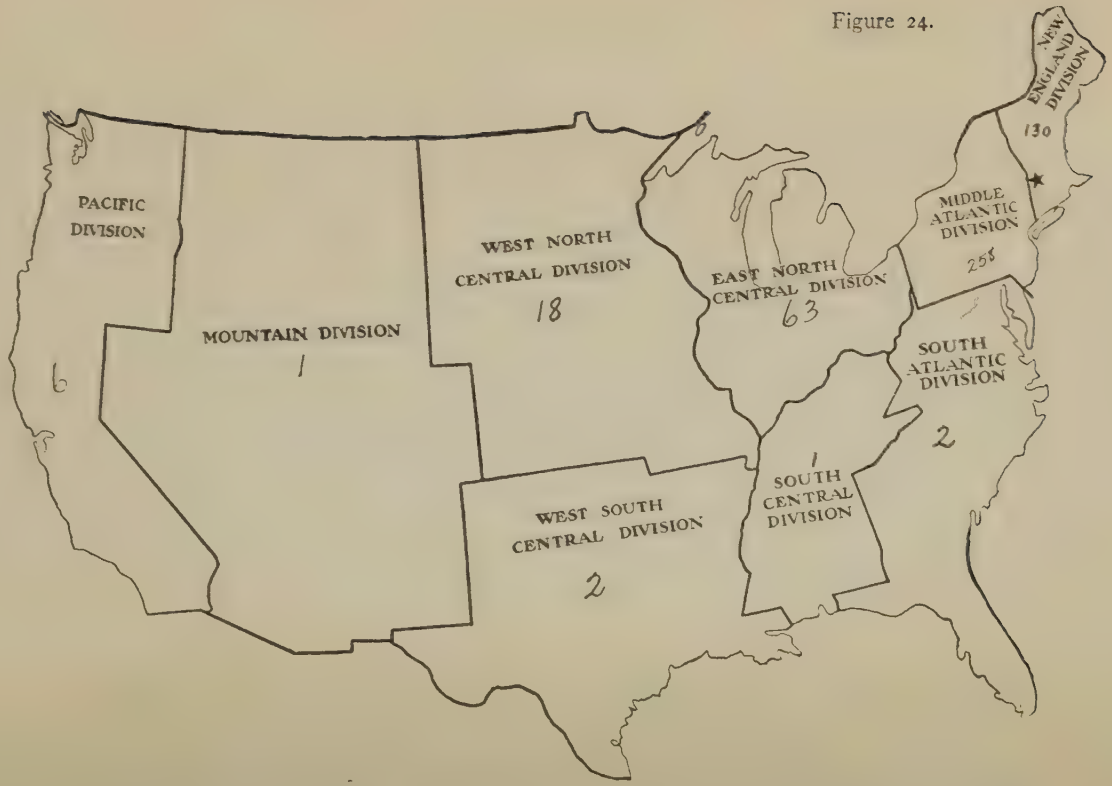
Figure 23.



Map showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles and enrolled in the four regular college classes of Williams College, Williamstown, Mass.

(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles)

Figure 24.



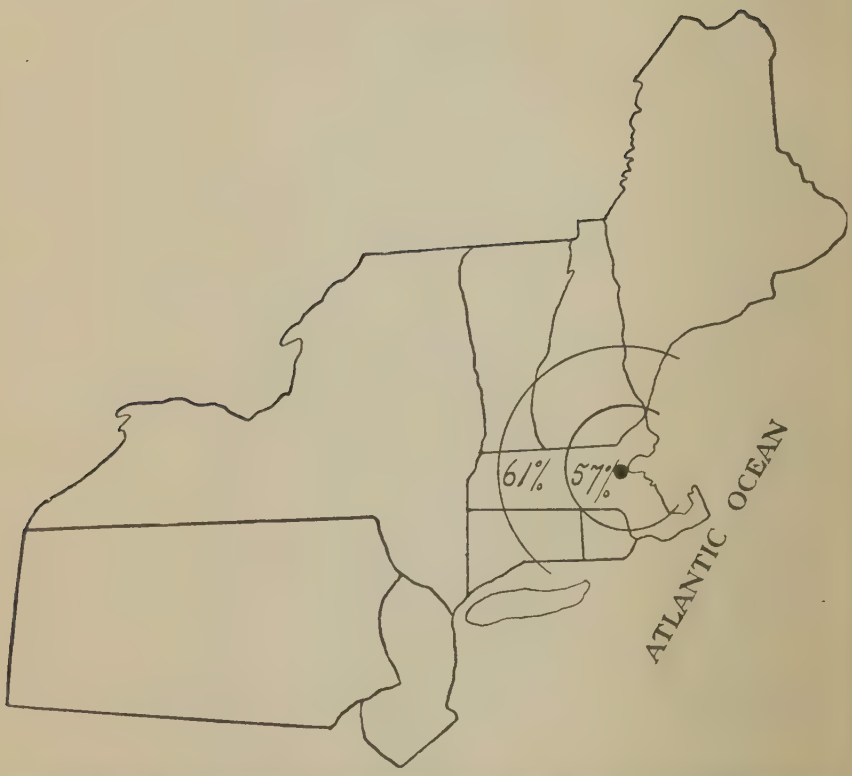
Map showing sections from which Williams College, Williamstown, Mass., derives its students.

(Star denotes the location of Williams College)

from all sections. Moreover, these institutions have never been so numerous that the demand for higher education on the part of women could be as a rule locally satisfied. Nevertheless, the one hundred mile limit takes in a substantial portion of the attendance and only a small percentage come from remote regions. Smith College, for instance (Figures 27, 28), draws 14 and 35 per cent, respectively, from fifty and one hundred miles, 86 per cent. from the larger field east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio. Vassar (Figures 29, 30), drawing 9 per cent. from the fifty mile limit, 42 per cent. from one hundred miles, and 86 per cent. from the territory east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio, is similar to Smith.

It is clear then that the geographical factor is always powerful, even though not infrequently offset to greater or less extent by historical or other considerations. Institutions which have thus made themselves effective over an unusually wide territory are obviously to be regarded as permanent and important factors in our educational development, precisely as in Germany the universities of Tübingen and Greifswald have more than triumphed over a disadvantageous location. Nevertheless, such institutions constitute no conclusive precedent for present-day action. Our college planning, in so far as it endeavors to develop institutions that have not yet attained full power, must give great weight to the consideration that the modern university thrives and is most useful in close association with population, industry, and wealth.

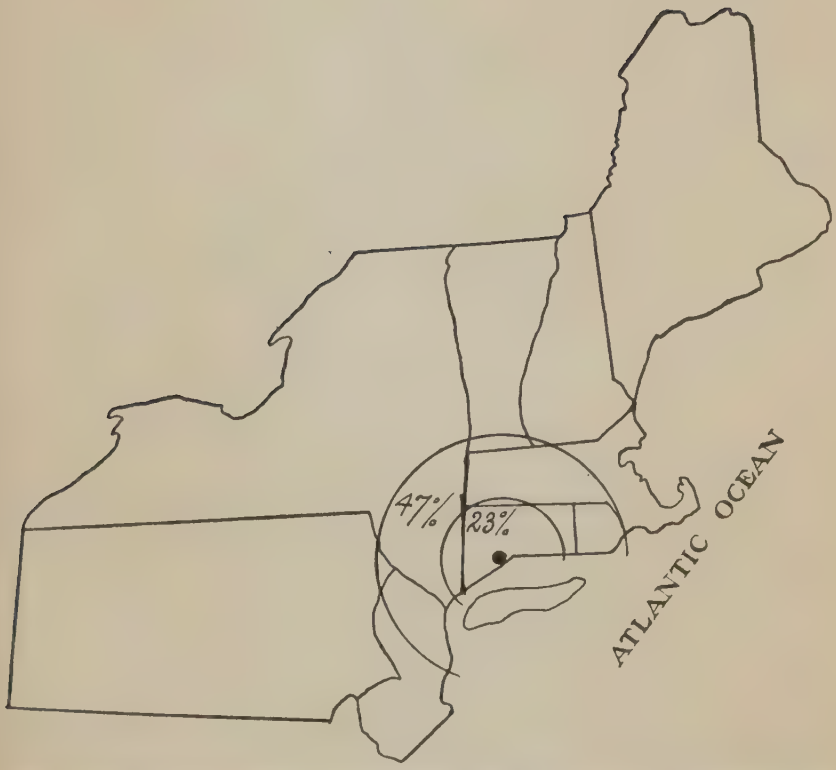
Figure 25.



Map showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles and enrolled in the four regular college classes of Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles)

Figure 26



Map showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles and enrolled in the four regular college classes of Yale University, New Haven, Conn.

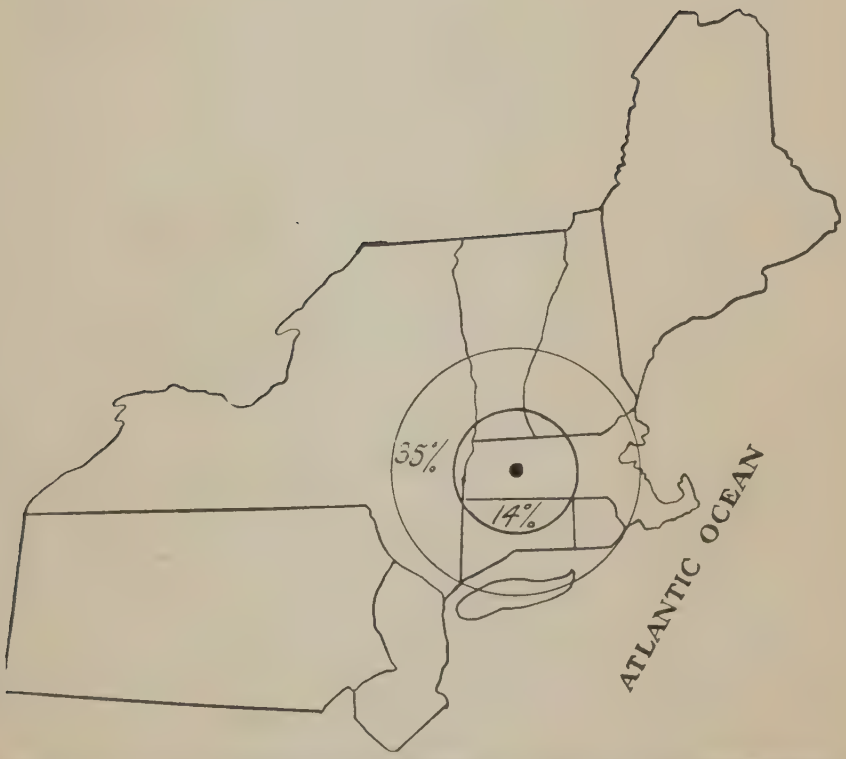
(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles)

We shall see in a moment that this is a fact, vouched for by experience, even were it a matter to be deplored. But it is by no means clear that a rural location has to-day any substantial advantages at all over an urban location. The village or the wilderness was suitable to the college student, from twelve to fourteen years of age at matriculation and hardly more than sixteen at graduation, whose instruction was confined to ancient languages, the elements of mathematics, rhetoric, and philosophy. To-day the college student is on the verge of manhood; the college curriculum endeavors to include not only the treasures of historic culture, but the activities and ideals of contemporary life. From these points of view, the opportunities, influences, perhaps even the restraints, surrounding the student in a city of fifty or one hundred thousand inhabitants may well be superior to the influences in the country college situated in a little village which the students dominate.

LARGE DEVELOPMENT OF COLLEGES LOCATED IN CITIES

Of the hundreds of colleges and universities struggling for existence at the time the General Education Board was established, thirty-four, privately founded, had endowments valued at $500,000 or more. Of these thirty-four, twenty-three were located in cities and growing towns. The eleven situated less favorably had $13,000,000 in endowment, and less than 6,000 students; the twenty-three more favorably situated had $72,000,000 of endowment, and almost 36,000 students.

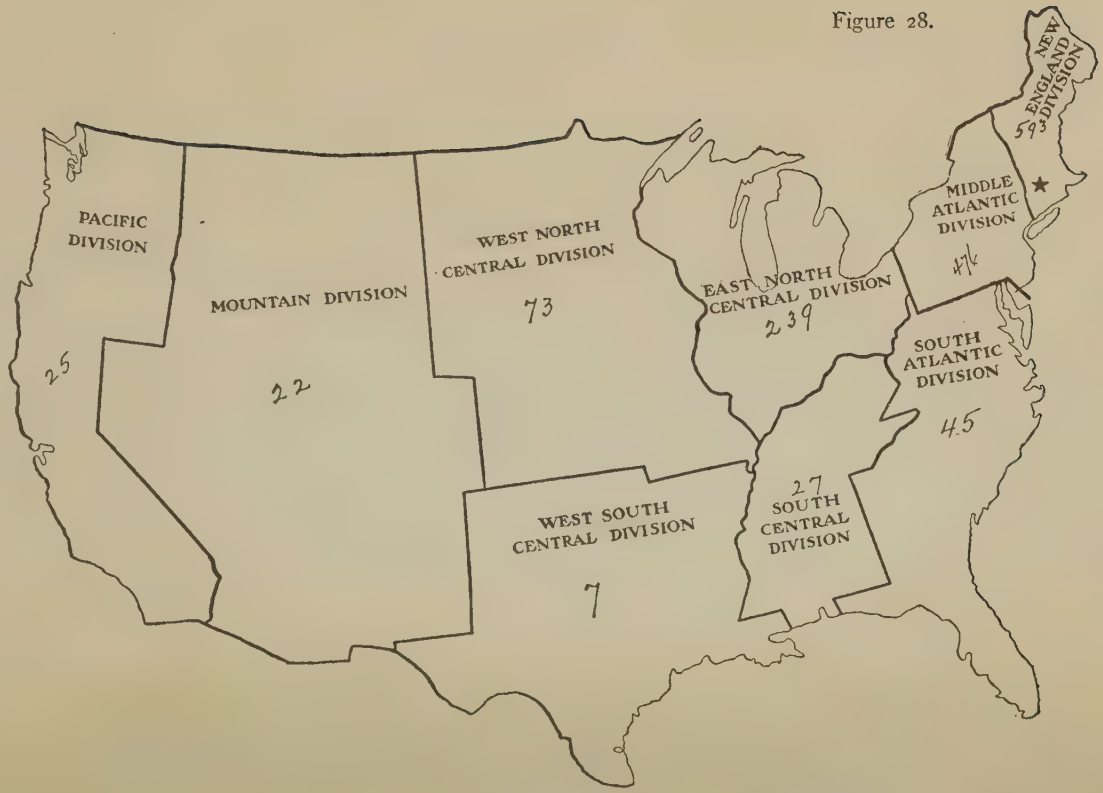
Figure 27.



Map showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles and enrolled in the four regular college classes of Smith College, Northampton, Mass.

(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles)

Figure 28.



Map showing sections from which Smith College, Northampton, Mass., derives its students.

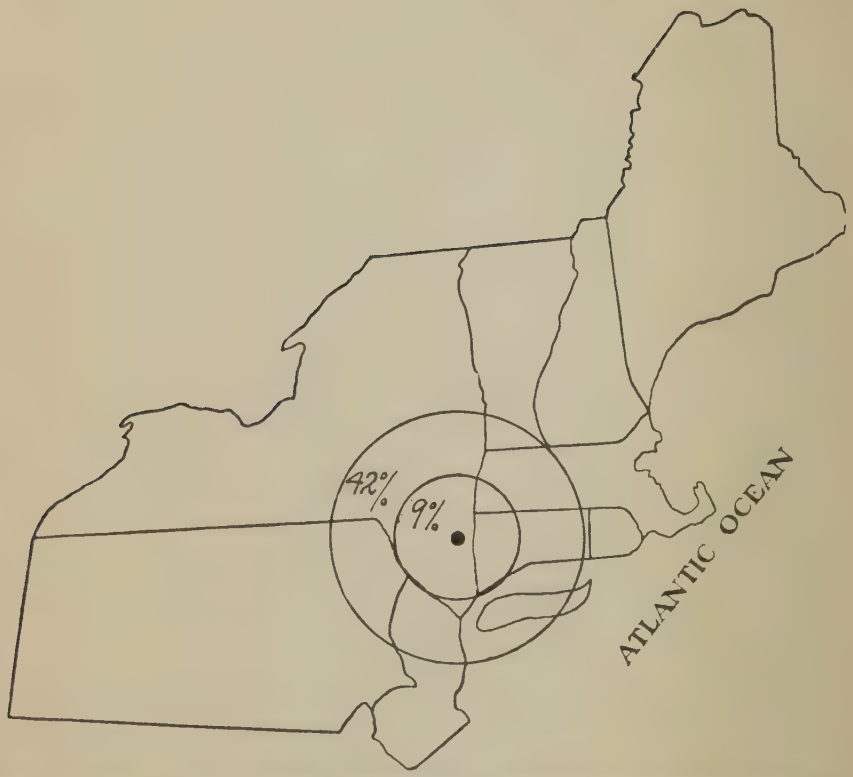
(Star denotes the location of Smith College)

Moved, therefore, by the foregoing facts and considerations, the General Education Board has by preference selected for assistance institutions situated within a field where students could be easily procured, where the fostering care of a prosperous community could be counted on, where an appetite for knowledge and culture could be readily stimulated and gratified. At the same time it has not passed by older institutions, otherwise located.

(*b*) *Denominational Institutions*

A second factor of immense importance, particularly in the early days of development, is the relationship of the college to a religious denomination. It has been already pointed out that religious bodies have very unwisely over-multiplied colleges, thus scattering students and resources. But, on the other hand, they are entitled to the credit of having founded and maintained most of our really substantial private foundations. Their loyalty has as a rule not ceased even where the denominational relationship no longer holds. Yale, founded and long controlled by Congregationalists, is still their pride, even though in scope and ideal it has little in common with the small college established to provide an educated ministry for the denomination; Princeton owes as much to Presbyterianism; Brown to the Baptists. Of the newer colleges and universities out of which the future Harvards, Yales, Princetons, and Browns must come, most of them are of denominational origin, and most are still the objects of denomi-

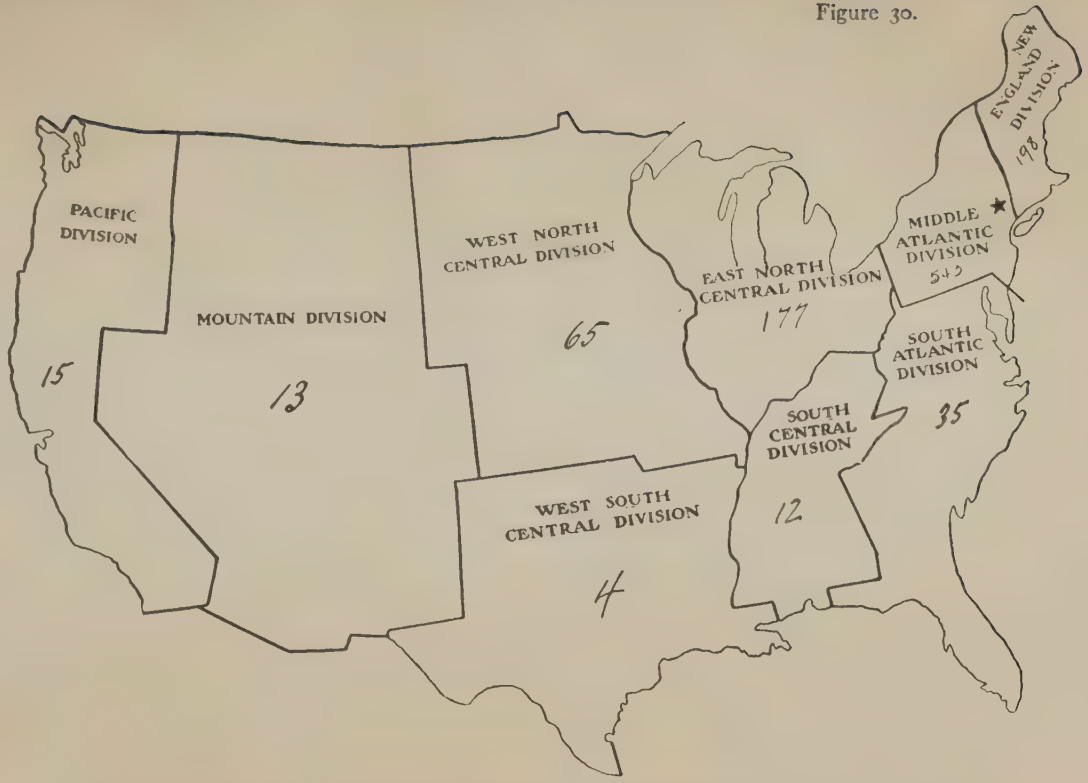
Figure 29.



Map showing the percentage of students coming from within 50 and 100 miles and enrolled in the four regular college classes of Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

(The inner circle has a radius of 50 miles; the outer circle a radius of 100 miles)

Figure 30.



Map showing sections from which Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y., derives its students.

(Star denotes the location of Vassar College.)

national care. An effort to develop a system of higher education in the United States requires, therefore, constant and sympathetic coöperation with denominational organizations; only thus can certain promising institutions be aided; only thus can a movement toward concentration of denominational effort be promoted.

(*c*) *Importance of Increasing Endowments*

It was tentatively estimated that an efficient college should enjoy an income from endowment covering from 40 to 60 per cent. of its annual expenditure. Moreover, the expense of conducting colleges and universities is bound to increase with the cost of living, the competition for trained teachers, the enlargement of the boundaries of knowledge, and the increase of specialization. In order that they may obtain and retain competent teachers, the colleges must be financially strong and secure. Support by fees and by contributions to meet current expense is too precarious to sustain the elaborate organization of a modern institution of learning. It was decided, therefore, that the gifts of the General Education Board should be made to endowment and on such terms as were calculated to draw further funds to the selected institutions and arouse other interests in them. There was the further consideration that buildings, grounds, apparatus, and scholarships can all be more readily obtained through gifts than can the endowment necessary to meet the expenditure they entail.

The three main features of the policy of the General

Education Board in dealing with higher education may therefore be expressed as follows:

(1) Preference for centres of wealth and population as the pivots of the system;

(2) Systematic and helpful coöperation with religious denominations;

(3) Concentration of gifts in the form of endowment.

APPROPRIATIONS TO COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Up to June 30, 1914, the General Education Board made contributions to 103 colleges and universities; to nineteen of these it has made a second appropriation. The sums pledged by the Board amount to $10,582,591.80; the institutions assisted have themselves undertaken to raise additional sums aggregating almost $40,000,000. Through the coöperation of the General Education Board, therefore, $50,000,000 will shortly have been added to college and university resources. Nor does this sum represent the full outcome of the Board's work in this direction, for it does not include bequests written into the wills of those whose interest in a particular institution was first aroused or much deepened by campaigns undertaken to increase endowment. The Board has been assured that very considerable sums have thus been obtained. A recent report received from institutions which have been assisted discloses the fact that the total increase in the endowment of colleges to which the Board has made pledges, determined as from the dates of the several pledges, is already $20,760,292. The total

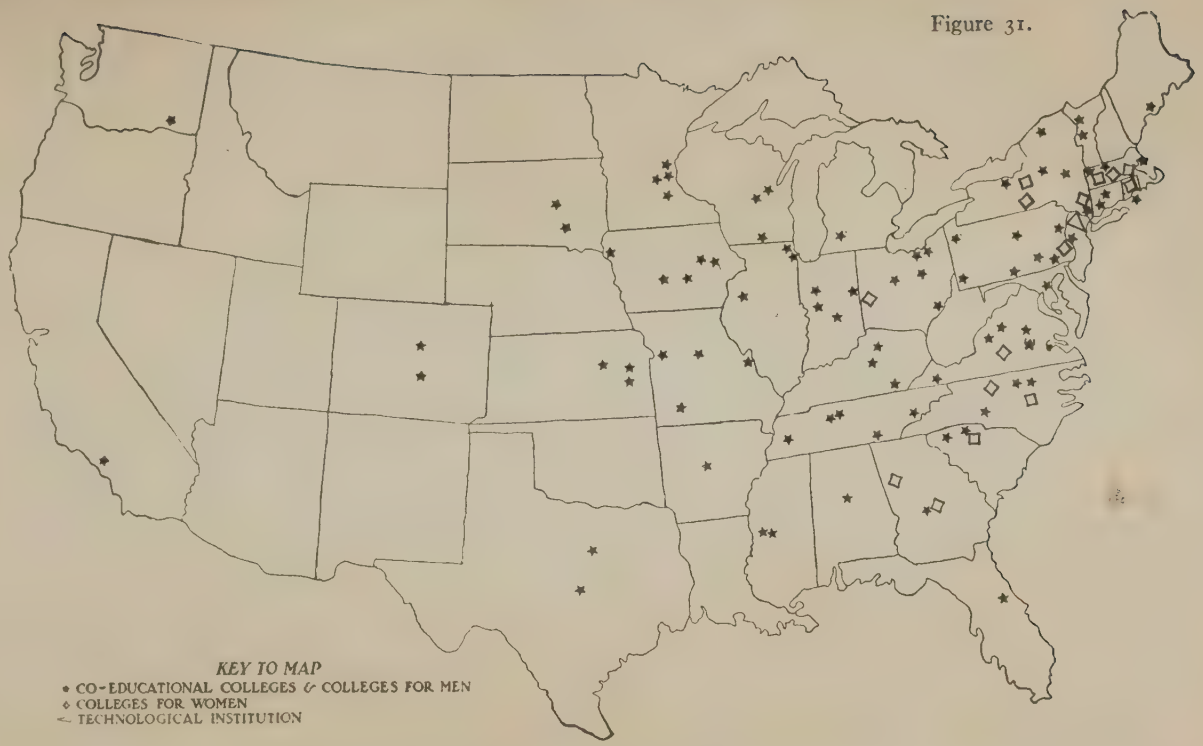
cost of new buildings for the same period is $6,302,953. A list of the institutions with the sums raised is given below.[1] The following map (Figure 31) shows the geographical distribution of the institutions to which appropriations have been made.

It will have been remarked that the gifts of the General Education Board to colleges and universities are invariably part only of the sum which the institutions in question have undertaken to raise. It should, however, be stated that this does not mean that the General Education Board requires an institution to raise any particular sum or to raise money in any particular way. Quite the contrary is the case. Not the Board, but the institution, takes the initiative, by communicating to the Board its intention to undertake the raising of a certain sum, toward which a contribution is requested from the General Education Board. In giving, the Board is therefore in the same position as every other contributor; all alike subscribe specified sums toward a specified total; all are therefore conditional givers. The General Education Board appears to stand out from the others, not because its offer is any more conditional, but simply because it is usually the largest single contributor.

Conditional giving is justified by its fruits. Let us recall for a moment what has been previously stated in respect to the founding and support of higher institutions of learning in the United States. They derive their

[1] pp. 155-9.

Figure 31.



Location of 103 institutions of higher learning to which the General Education Board has made appropriations.

funds largely from private donors; in so far, their security and growth depend on their possessing a wide circle of devoted friends. Moreover, the sudden increase in the cost of conducting higher education, due to the quick development of laboratories, research, libraries, etc., required that this circle of devoted friends be very rapidly enlarged. More persons had to be interested on short notice, and they had to be trained at once to give more generously. Modest unconditioned gifts might indeed prove a hindrance rather than a help. A new building presented without an increase of endowment sufficient to carry the additional expense incurred in running it; an endowed professorship unaccompanied by increased general funds; a new campus without further unencumbered funds with which to develop and care for it— these and other unconditioned benefactions tend to embarrass, not to assist, a university. Conditional giving means, therefore, that when an institution undertakes to raise money for expansion, it has calculated what it needs in order, not only to make, but to support, a progressive step. To this end every giver increases the leverage by means of which the required total may be collected; every giver accepts a certain—not infrequently a large—responsibility for the future of the institution. It may not be amiss to add in this connection that, in founding the University of Chicago, Mr. Rockefeller acted upon the principle just elucidated. In making his final gift of $10,000,000 to this institution (December 13, 1910) he stated his conviction that "it is far better that the uni-

versity be supported and enlarged by the gifts of many than by those of a single donor. I have accordingly sought to assist you in enlisting the interest and securing the contributions of many others."

It happens, of course, very often that the General Education Board is unable to see its way clear to making contributions that have been requested. It is believed that adverse decisions of this kind have as a rule been satisfactorily explained to the applicants, so that, even if the reasons may not be concurred in, the disinterested desire of the Board to do justice has not been questioned. Decisions of this kind may be based on one or more of several reasons: the Board may have already contributed more than a fair share to the section represented; the institution may occupy a more or less unpromising situation; it may be in too close proximity to a stronger institution; it may be without backing; it may be one of several denominational institutions which ought to be merged rather than separately developed. Some of these schools may at the moment be performing a useful function; yet unless they appear to be necessary factors in a well organized and well distributed permanent system of higher education, the General Education Board is compelled to pass them by.

COLLEGE FINANCE

As the General Education Board has undertaken to render financial assistance, special attention has been paid in the study of institutions to their business meth-

ods. As a business organization, alive to the dangers which attend large enterprises, the Board has taken care to aid institutions in safeguarding their property. The Board was indeed bound to exercise as much care in the distribution of its income as in making investment of its principal. For this reason, the business management of colleges applying for contributions has been carefully scrutinized with a view to suggesting such improvements as might be advisable.

At first, request was made for the report of the treasurer of the college. Sometimes this was sent in printed form, but more often, especially by the smaller colleges, in manuscript form. A few of these financial statements received in the earlier history of the Board were in excellent form, and the information desired was easily obtained from the official document. More frequently, however, the statement was incomplete and confused. The essential facts about which information was wanted could not be gathered from the report. Furthermore, there was no uniformity of statement among the many colleges reporting, so that comparative presentation of facts regarding several colleges was impossible. The varied systems of accounting employed rendered it practically impossible to secure a correct comparative statement of any item of college finance. It became necessary, therefore, to prepare a set of questions and to ask the colleges applying for aid to cast their accounts in forms provided by the office of the General Education Board. These forms provided for sharp distinction in

matters that were essentially different, and defined terms so as to leave no doubt in the mind of any one as to their precise meaning. These blanks were sent freely to all who asked for them, and they have contributed toward reshaping the financial methods of many institutions. It may be interesting, as a matter of record, to mention some of the particulars wherein the Board has been helpful to colleges in improving the management of their finances.

IMPROVEMENTS SECURED

(*a*) *More Careful Accounting*

The call for accurate and complete financial statistics has resulted in the more careful keeping of records. Originally, many, particularly the smaller, colleges had no organized bookkeeping staff. One college was discovered which had no record of bonds given for endowment, except the envelope in which they were placed. In another instance gifts had been received through a series of years and no record of the amounts or the purposes for which the gifts were made had been kept. The only thing known by the college when the inquiry was made was that at that time they had such and such securities. Colleges have found it necessary to examine files of years' accumulation, to search records of church organizations, to appeal to the memory of "the oldest inhabitant" and to resort to every known method of getting information, and then have been obliged to report that the statements submitted were only approximately correct. All this is being changed. Bookkeepers are being installed;

a thoroughgoing system of bookkeeping established; a complete system of vouchers adopted; an annual auditing of accounts required by the trustees, as well as the issuing of financial reports to boards of trustees and to others.

(*b*) *Definition of Terms*

A few words have found their way into college finance which have been freely used without clear or definite meaning. To one, they have meant this, to another, that. Among them are the following: "equipment," "scientific equipment," "capital," "endowment," "income," "investments." Early in the history of the Board it became clear that before accurate statements, particularly comparative statements, could be made, words must be defined. For example, what is "endowment?" Reports made to other agencies than the General Education Board showed that all sorts of property were being reported as "endowment," the word being so freely and loosely used by colleges in reporting that published statistics were valueless. So indiscriminate were the returns under this heading that summaries made on the basis of these reports frequently included the same item twice and sometimes actually included liabilities. "Investments" has been as loosely used. Not infrequently subscription notes and even verbal promises to make gifts have been reported as "investment" or "endowment." One college officer astonished the office by making a report which was very flattering, and when questioned more closely confessed that the

amount reported was what "he hoped to have!" A persistent attempt has been made by the officers in charge to define terms and to secure the use of terms in their exact meaning so that, for example, when the word "endowment" was used it would not be interpreted to mean college buildings, or subscription notes of doubtful value, or good-will on the part of some one who might or might not remember the institution in his will. A sharp distinction has been insisted on as between capital and current funds. Colleges have been found which were in the field collecting funds ostensibly for endowment or for building purposes, when, as a matter of fact, all receipts were poured into one account from which current expenses were being met without discrimination as to the source of supply.

(*c*) *Endowment Funds to Be Kept Intact*

All colleges with which the Board has coöperated have already been in possession of trust funds. But it has been discovered that not infrequently such trust funds have been depleted. The Board of Trustees of a college, being hard pressed to meet current expenses, has resorted to the fiction of "borrowing" from permanent funds to tide the college over a time of stress; occasionally a "note" is given to cover the "loan." The relief may not have come as anticipated and the "borrowed" money frequently has not been returned to the trust fund. Whenever this state of affairs has been found, the General Education Board has insisted upon the restoration of such

trust funds before making payments on its pledge. It has also stipulated that the money contributed by the General Education Board "shall be invested and preserved inviolably for the endowment" of the institution. The Board has received many assurances from colleges that in the future trust funds will be more strictly regarded and that under no circumstances will encroachment upon permanent funds to meet current expenses be allowed. The Board has thus been made to believe that, apart from rendering direct aid to colleges, it has been of service in throwing safeguards about funds contributed by others.

(*d*) *Educational and Business Budgets*

A distinction has been made between an educational budget and affairs of a business or a semi-business nature conducted in connection with a college. Certain colleges, particularly colleges for women, maintain boarding departments, for example. Early records show that it has been customary for many colleges to include gross receipts from the boarding department as "college receipts." This custom not only made comparison of these colleges impracticable with colleges reporting no such gross receipts, but it rendered impossible the making of a strictly educational budget. In the blank forms above referred to, which have been furnished to colleges making reports to the office of the General Education Board, provision is made for the segregation of all accounts of a business or semi-business nature, thus permitting a clear statement of annual receipts and expenditures for *educa-*

tional purposes. College officials have reported to the office that this insistence upon segregation of strictly educational matters from business affairs has been helpful, not only in preparing the educational budget, but also in determining the profit or loss of the business conducted.

(*e*) *Differentiation of Departments*

As the General Education Board has been devoting its attention to the development of a limited number of colleges of the arts and sciences, its officers have sought to learn the facts specifically regarding the college department of the institution. In the earlier dealings of the Board with colleges it found few institutions maintaining preparatory departments which knew the comparative expense of the collegiate and preparatory departments. The accounts were inextricably mixed. A radical change has been made in the method of accounting so that now all the better institutions are able to determine the exact financial status of their several departments. The tendency has been not only to draw a clear line of demarcation between the finances of the college and the academy, but to separate the two parts educationally or to discontinue the secondary work altogether. The very word "college" has come to have a new meaning in consequence of a better system of accounting.

EFFECT OF BOARD'S CONTRIBUTIONS

Many years must necessarily elapse before the main task in which the General Education Board is assisting

can be even approximately completed. Meanwhile, there can be no doubt in the mind of any one familiar with the facts that the growing recognition of the importance of conceiving the higher education of the country, from the standpoint of a system of parts mutually related by the voluntary efforts of those interested, is proof of the soundness of the conception which led to the creation of the Board. Nor has the activity of the Board cost institutions anything in the way of freedom to meet their own problems in their own way. On this point expressions are too many and too sincere to leave any doubt whatsoever. The very opposite, indeed, has happened. The gifts of the General Education Board have been the means of arousing new effort. "The offer of the General Education Board proved to be the culmination of a series of events which caused the friends of the college to rally to the institution in a campaign for additional endowment as nothing else could have done," writes the president of one institution. "Under the stimulus of your pledge," wrote another, "a local movement was begun, local resources were developed, alumni and friends were aroused, and we secured not only a million dollars, but twenty-five hundred investors in our educational enterprise, many of whom had never before contributed to the support of an American university." In one instance, the only endowed college in a Southern state, "struggling against almost insuperable obstacles," was saved from destruction and has now $300,000 safely invested; in another—this one of the strongest institu-

tions of the land—the Board's appropriation was the initial help in obtaining land, buildings, and endowment for a set of adequate university laboratories. In repeated instances, debts have been paid, salaries increased, new departments created, and more teachers supplied in consequence of the increased resources toward which the Board's gifts served as an almost indispensable leverage. An institution's usefulness grows with its financial strength. The canvass for funds itself attracts students by making it better known; increased resources mean larger and more varied facilities, through which, of course, more students are more efficiently trained. The rapid increase in university attendance has forced the raising of larger sums; the raising of these sums has reacted on and increased attendance. If colleges and universities are to be thus popularly fostered and sustained, the work of the General Education Board may be fairly said to have made these institutions the more secure to the extent that it has increased the number of those who have a stake in them.

TOTAL SUBSCRIPTIONS TO COLLEGES BY THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

	Summary	
	Appropriations of Board	Entire Sum to Be Raised
To Southern States	$3,052,625	$12,199,677
" Western States	3,967,781	19,374,522
" Eastern and Middle States . . .	3,562,185	18,810,124
	$10,582,591	$50,384,323

SUBSCRIPTIONS TO COLLEGES BY SECTIONS

SOUTHERN STATES

Total Appropriation . $3,052,625 Toward . . $12,199,677

	Subscribed by G. E. B.	Supplemental Sum	TOTAL
Maryland—$250,000			
Johns Hopkins University	$250,000	$750,000	$1,000,000
Virginia—$490,000 . . .			
Emory and Henry College	50,000	200,000	250,000
Randolph-Macon College*	60,000	130,000	190,000
Randolph-Macon Woman's College	75,000	175,000	250,000
Richmond College . . .	150,000	350,000	500,000
University of Virginia . .	50,000	450,000	500,000
Washington and Lee University*	105,000	445,000	550,000
North Carolina—$379,416			
Davidson College . . .	75,000	225,000	300,000
Meredith College . . .	50,000	100,000	150,000
Salem Academy and College	75,000	225,000	300,000
Trinity College	150,000	850,000	1,000,000
Wake Forest College . .	29,416	88,248	117,664
South Carolina—$154,176			
Converse College . . .	$50,000	$100,000	$150,000
Furman University* .	50,000	250,000	300,000
Wofford College* . . .	54,176	151,704	205,880
Georgia—$232,333			
Agnes Scott College . .	100,000	250,000	350,000
Mercer University . . .	32,333	97,000	129,333
Wesleyan Female College .	100,000	200,000	300,000
Alabama—$21,700			
Howard College	21,700	65,100	86,800
Mississippi—$150,000			
Millsaps College . . .	25,000	75,000	100,000
Mississippi College . . .	125,000	275,000	400,000
Arkansas—$175,000			
Hendrix College* . . .	175,000	525,000	700,000

* Two appropriations made.

SOUTHERN STATES—*Continued*

	Subscribed by G. E. B.	Supplemental Sum	TOTAL
Tennessee—$625,000			
George Peabody College for Teachers	250,000	750,000	1,000,000
Maryville College	50,000	150,000	200,000
Union University	25,000	75,000	100,000
University of Chattanooga	150,000	350,000	500,000
Vanderbilt University	150,000	150,000	300,000
Kentucky—$125,000			
Georgetown College	$25,000	$75,000	$100,000
Transylvania University	50,000	150,000	200,000
Williamsburg Institute	50,000	170,000	220,000
Texas—$400,000			
Baylor University	200,000	400,000	600,000
Southern Methodist University	200,000	800,000	1,000,000
Florida—$50,000			
John B. Stetson University	50,000	100,000	150,000
	$3,052,625	$9,147,052	$12,199,677

WESTERN STATES

Total Appropriations . $3,967,781 Toward . . $19,374,522

	Subscribed by G. E. B.	Supplemental Sum	TOTAL
Ohio—$760,000			
Marietta College	$60,000	$240,000	$300,000
Oberlin College	125,000	375,000	500,000
Ohio Wesleyan University	125,000	375,000	500,000
University of Wooster*	275,000	825,000	1,100,000
Western College for Women	50,000	200,000	250,000
Western Reserve University	125,000	375,000	500,000
Indiana—$230,160			
DePauw University	100,000	400,000	500,000
Earlham College	30,761	133,300	164,061
Franklin College	49,399	214,063	263,462
Wabash College	50,000	150,000	200,000

*Two appropriations made.

	Subscribed by G. E. B.	Supplemental Sum	TOTAL
Michigan—$16,106			
Kalamazoo College	16,106	48,318	64,424
Illinois—$300,000			
Knox College*	150,000	600,000	750,000
Lake Forest College	50,000	350,000	400,000
Northwestern University	100,000	900,000	1,000,000
Wisconsin—$290,000			
Beloit College*	$150,000	$550,000	$700,000
Lawrence College*	90,000	310,000	400,000
Ripon College	50,000	200,000	250,000
Minnesota—$350,000			
College of St. Thomas	75,000	225,000	300,000
Carleton College	100,000	500,000	600,000
Hamline University	50,000	150,000	200,000
Macalester College*	125,000	575,000	700,000
Iowa—$596,515			
Coe College*	146,515	586,060	732,575
Cornell College	100,000	300,000	400,000
Drake University	100,000	300,000	400,000
Grinnell College*	200,000	700,000	900,000
Morningside College	50,000	150,000	200,000
Colorado—$200,000			
Colorado College*	100,000	700,000	800,000
The University of Denver	100,000	300,000	400,000
Kansas—$275,000			
Ottawa University	25,000	75,000	100,000
Washburn College*	125,000	475,000	600,000
Baker University	125,000	375,000	500,000
Missouri—$525,000			
Drury College*	$125,000	$525,000	$650,000
Washington University	200,000	800,000	1,000,000
William Jewell College	125,000	375,000	500,000
Central College	75,000	225,000	300,000
South Dakota—$150,000			
Dakota Wesleyan University	50,000	200,000	250,000
Huron College	100,000	400,000	500,000
Washington—$125,000			
Whitman College	125,000	375,000	500,000
California—$150,000			
Pomona College	150,000	850,000	1,000,000
	$3,967,781	$15,406,741	$19,374,522

*Two appropriations made.

EASTERN AND MIDDLE STATES

Total Appropriations . $3,562,185 Toward . . $18,810,124

	Subscribed by G. E. B.	Supplemental Sum	TOTAL
Maine—$50,000			
Bowdoin College . . .	$50,000	$200,000	$250,000
Vermont—$150,000			
Middlebury College . .	50,000	150,000	200,000
University of Vermont .	100,000	400,000	500,000
Massachusetts—$750,000			
Amherst College . . .	75,000	325,000	400,000
Harvard University . .	62,500	62,500	125,000
Mount Holyoke College .	100,000	400,000	500,000
Smith College*	212,500	850,000	1,062,500
Williams College . . .	100,000	500,000	600,000
Wellesley College . . .	200,000	800,000	1,000,000
Connecticut—$400,000			
Wesleyan University . .	100,000	900,000	1,000,000
Yale University	300,000	1,700,000	2,000,000
New York—$955,000			
Hamilton College . . .	50,000	150,000	200,000
Elmira College	100,000	200,000	300,000
St. Lawrence University .	50,000	150,000	200,000
Wells College	100,000	400,000	500,000
Union College*	175,000	625,000	800,000
University of Rochester* .	230,000	970,000	1,200,000
Chamber of Com. of City of New York	50,000	450,000	500,000
Barnard College . . .	200,000	800,000	1,000,000
Pennsylvania—$757,741			
Allegheny College* . . .	$150,000	$550,000	$700,000
Bryn Mawr College . .	250,000	380,000	630,000
Bucknell University . .	35,000	125,000	160,000
Franklin and Marshall College	50,000	308,512	358,512
Lafayette College . . .	47,741	381,928	429,669
Pennsylvania College . .	50,000	150,000	200,000
Swarthmore College . .	75,000	425,000	500,000
Washington and Jefferson College	100,000	400,000	500,000
New Jersey—$349,444			
Princeton University . .	99,444	894,999	994,443
Stevens Institute of Technology	250,000	750,000	1,000,000
Rhode Island—$150,000			
Brown University	100,000	700,000	800,000
Women's College in Brown University	50,000	150,000	200,000
	$3,562,185	$15,247,939	$18,810,124

VI. MEDICAL EDUCATION

THE activities described in the preceding section have been concerned only with what is ordinarily known as the department or faculty of arts and sciences—the core of the American college or university. For some years the Board concentrated its attention on this central feature of our institutions of higher learning. Only within the last year has it undertaken to deal with one of the professional schools, viz., that of medicine.

DEVELOPMENT OF MEDICAL EDUCATION IN AMERICA

The American medical school began as a casual association of local physicians lecturing and occasionally demonstrating to a nondescript body of medical students. Up to comparatively recent times the facilities were of the most meagre kind. Laboratories of very unsatisfactory character were provided for anatomy, chemistry, and perhaps pathology; clinical opportunities were limited to a precarious relationship with a private or public hospital, the appointments to which were made on almost any basis except education and science. The curriculum, originally calling for the repetition of certain courses of lectures during two successive years was only

gradually and painfully lengthened and graded. Entrance requirements there were for years none worthy the name. The fees received for the opportunities just described were distributed among those participating in the instruction.

CHANGES IN RECENT YEARS

During the last twenty-five years these so-called proprietary schools have come to be regarded with great disfavor. Many have closed their doors; signs of discomfort preceding dissolution can be discerned in those still surviving. These schools were most numerous about the year 1906 when 161 medical schools were in existence in the United States; now, less than a decade later, this number has decreased to about a hundred. The process of reduction has obviously still far to go; but the accomplishment in this direction has undoubtedly been noteworthy. Simultaneously, the surviving schools have greatly improved. Entrance requirements have been formulated and somewhat rapidly elevated—in the South, especially, with such excessive speed that the better medical schools have for the time being lost touch with the general educational situation. Tuition fees, instead of going into the pockets of practitioner teachers, have been utilized to equip the necessary fundamental laboratories, and to pay for a gradually increasing number of full-time teachers; the hospital relationship has been improved to the extent that larger freedom for teaching has been obtained, though the hos-

pital staff continues, in so far as these schools are concerned, to be appointed largely for other than educational reasons.

THE NEW TYPE OF MEDICAL SCHOOL

The progress just sketched has been greatly influenced by the outright creation, meanwhile, of a new type of medical school—a school offering from the start, to properly qualified students, a four years' graded course, the first two years devoted to laboratory subjects—anatomy, physiology, and pathology; the last two years devoted to clinical subjects—medicine, surgery, obstetrics, etc.—all these departments being organized and equipped with education and science prominently in mind. The first and best known of these modern institutions was the Medical School of the Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore. This institution, fortunate in its freedom from all entanglements, in its possession of an excellent endowed hospital, and above all in wise and devoted leadership, set a new and stimulating example precisely when a demonstration of the right type was most urgently needed.

THE LABORATORY BRANCHES

At the time of the establishment of the Johns Hopkins Medical School in 1893, the fundamental laboratory branches—anatomy, physiology, and pathology—were still taught in even the better medical schools then existing by practising physicians. It is true that at Harvard

the important fundamental subjects were already taught by full-time men; and in one or two other institutions an occasional full-time teacher was to be found. But, generally speaking, these instances were sporadic. The subjects were in consequence, as a rule, ill taught and poorly developed; for the main interest of most teachers and their assistants was in their private practice and they could give to teaching only such time and energy as practice did not absorb. In the new Johns Hopkins School the laboratory sciences were from the first placed upon an unconditioned university basis. They were cultivated by "full-time" teachers working under university conditions and working for university rewards, such rewards being modest material, and abundant spiritual, satisfactions. In the organization of its laboratory departments, the Johns Hopkins Medical School recognized the contrast between an academic and a worldly career. The academic career must not indeed defeat its own object by requiring such renunciations as cramp and thwart development; but it can never hope to rival the worldly career on the latter's own ground. It will not yield abundant material satisfactions; it cannot, as a rule, live with them. The laboratory staff was accordingly composed of men of modest income leading academic lives devoted to teaching and research. It is no exaggeration to say that the few teachers who manned these departments and worked in this spirit revolutionized within a single decade the status of anatomy, physiology, and pathology in America. Their pupils were soon sought as

teachers by other schools; nowadays no reputable medical school uses practitioners to teach these branches. Moreover, the work of these men in America and of their collaborators in other countries has provided a new basis for medical and surgical development.

THE CLINICAL BRANCHES

On the clinical side, the establishment of the Johns Hopkins Medical School was marked by two important features. The first of these was its organic connection with its own hospital. At that time, though one or two medical schools possessed small university hospitals—hospitals, that is, the staff of which the school selected—no such medical school possessed a hospital adequate in size and equipment for such teaching and research as should be prosecuted. For the most part, as has been already stated, hospital relationship to medical schools was casual or precarious. Hospital trustees appointed a medical and surgical staff; and schools desiring hospital facilities had to employ these men as teachers or do without. In no case did a hospital sufficient in size, well supported, and well equipped for teaching and investigation belong to an American medical school prior to the establishment of the Johns Hopkins Medical School.

The second feature above alluded to was the selection of clinical teachers on scientific grounds. The founders of the Johns Hopkins broke with precedent when, instead of filling the clinical teaching posts with local practitioners, as had been and still unfortunately is the pre-

vailing custom, the clinical professors were called from other places: Philadelphia, New York, and elsewhere. In this way as capable a staff as the country afforded was assembled, and as selections could be and were made on educational and scientific grounds, the country for the first time saw an entire medical school organized on precisely the same principles that obtained in other university departments.

Unfortunately, the university lacked income enough to pay its clinical teachers adequately, even had it desired to do so. They had to engage in practice. To greater or less extent clinical teaching and clinical research have therefore suffered from the distractions incident to the life of practitioner and consultant. This could not be otherwise. Clinical teaching is not easier than laboratory teaching: it is more difficult; clinical research is not easier than laboratory research: it is more complicated. To conditions essential for research and teaching in anatomy and physiology, medicine and surgery cannot be indifferent. Under existing circumstances, initial success in clinical investigation may easily prove the clinician's permanent undoing. Scientific distinction brings hordes of patients, especially the rich; and this even though, as a matter of fact, in many instances, equally skilful service can be had elsewhere. In any event society has other uses for the clinical investigator. For to him the country must look altogether for the training of physicians and very largely for the increase of knowledge. It is necessary, therefore, that obscure cases should en-

gage his attention, and important that he should not expend himself on things that others can do satisfactorily. In Germany the general university tradition, the practice of basing academic distinction and promotion on scientific performance, has in the past served to protect clinical professors from distraction; nevertheless, in German universities situated in large cities, very disquieting indications of demoralization due to the invasion of worldly ambitions can nowadays be perceived. The American teacher of clinical medicine wholly lacks this bulwark; and though here and there an individual has successfully maintained his ideals against the pressure of private practice, the university type of clinician is extremely rare. It has therefore become important to create conditions favorable to the evolution of the full-time university clinician.

"FULL-TIME" CLINICAL TEACHERS

Fully cognizant of the situation just described, the faculty of the Johns Hopkins Medical School, after devoting several years to careful consideration of the best way in which to improve clinical conditions, from the three essential points of view—care of patients, teaching, and research—recommended that the main clinical departments—medicine, surgery, and pediatrics—should be organized on the full-time or university basis, if the necessary endowment could be obtained. A letter setting forth the facts was addressed to the General Education Board, October 21, 1913. "The faculty of the Medical

School"—so ran the communication—"are fully convinced of the wisdom and necessity of commanding the entire time and devotion of a staff of teachers in the main clinical branches, precisely as the school has since its beginning commanded the entire time and devotion of the teachers of the underlying sciences; we are persuaded that the time is ripe for the step in question and we are desirous of undertaking the innovation. Should the General Education Board provide the funds, the departments of medicine, surgery, and pediatrics would be organized on the full-time basis—that is, the professor and his staff consisting of associate professors, associates, assistants, etc.—would hold their posts on the condition that while engaged in the service of the university and hospital they accept no fees for professional services. They would be free to render any service required by humanity or science, but from it they would be expected to derive no pecuniary benefit. Fees charged by the hospital for professional services to private patients, whether within or without the hospital, by members of the full-time staff, such as at present are paid directly to the physician, would be used to promote the objects for the attainment of which this request is made."

THE WILLIAM H. WELCH ENDOWMENT

It was calculated that an endowment approximating $1,500,000 would be necessary for the purpose above mentioned, and this sum the General Education Board appropriated. In consideration of his unique services

to medical science and medical education, the fund was named the William H. Welch Endowment for Clinical Education and Research; for Dr. Welch had planned the Johns Hopkins Medical School, had selected its faculty, had guided its development, and has throughout his life been the wise, forceful, and modest leader of modern medicine and modern medical education in America.

WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY MEDICAL SCHOOL

The Board is also coöperating with Washington University, St. Louis, to the same end. The medical department of this institution had been of the usual local type; but far-reaching changes have been recently made. "Within the last three years," in the words of the application addressed to the General Education Board, "the Medical Department of Washington University has been completely reorganized as follows: The entire faculty resigned and successors, chosen on the advice of the leading medical scientists, were called from different institutions—the pathologist from the Rockefeller Institute, the physiologist from the University of Wisconsin, the biological chemist from Cornell University, the chief physician from Tulane University, the chief surgeon from the Massachusetts General Hospital. At the same time the university entered into contracts with the trustees of the Barnes Hospital and of the Children's Hospital according to which the three parties in interest decided to build a single plant, including a general hospital, a children's hospital, out-patient department, and univer-

sity laboratories, on a new site of which all three parties are owners.[1] The group of buildings in question is now nearing completion. They are of modern design and equipment, amply furnished with every appliance needed for treatment, education, and research. The hospitals will be opened in the summer of 1914; the medical school will hold its next session in the new quarters. In addition to highly advantageous contracts giving the university exclusive and complete teaching privileges in and medical and surgical control of the hospitals, and in addition to the powerful community of interest which these relations create, the plant is physically so unified that it would be practically impossible ever to separate it into its constituent parts.

"The plant above described has cost something over two and one half millions; the Barnes Hospital has an endowment of about one million dollars, which the university expects to supplement by annual subscriptions, and by raising a university hospital fund of like amount.

[1]The arrangement between Washington University and the Barnes Hospital is important because it shows how a medical school and a hospital with entirely distinct endowments and control may coöperate in caring for the sick, in teaching and research, to the immense benefit of all parties in interest. As it is hardly likely that the same individual will found hospital and university (as Johns Hopkins fortunately did), the type of relationship worked out in St. Louis is of great importance. For this reason, the contract between the two institutions is printed in full in the Appendix, pp. 224-230. A similar contract has also been made between Washington University and the St. Louis Children's Hospital, by which the Medical School obtains complete control of a modern children's hospital for its department of pediatrics. Washington University has also contracted with both the above named hospitals to operate a Training School for Nurses, supplying both institutions with nurses and charging each its proper proportion of the expense incurred. The contract dealing with this service is printed on pp. 230-1.

The Children's Hospital has fixed annual subscriptions of forty thousand dollars.

"It is estimated that an endowment producing fifty thousand dollars more would suffice to provide a full-time organization in medicine and surgery.

"In case the full-time scheme is introduced, all fees for services rendered in the private wards will be assessed by the university and collected through the hospital in order that in any event only reasonable fees may be charged; wherever such services are rendered by any person on the full-time basis, the fee will be covered into the fund which this application seeks to establish, and used for the benefit of the clinic concerned. As the private ward is a small one, there will be little use for it beyond affording the full-time men the opportunity they need for observing obscure or interesting patients who would not enter the wards.

"The medical faculty earnestly desires to enter upon its new opportunities equipped to take advantage of them according to the strictest demands of modern science and education. The university has a clean slate; and if the necessary aid is obtained, no step will be taken which will have to be retraced—no compromise effected which will at some future time have to be undone."

In compliance with the foregoing request, the Board appropriated $750,000 toward $1,500,000 for the endowment of university departments in Medicine, Surgery, and Pediatrics.

YALE UNIVERSITY MEDICAL DEPARTMENT

More recently, Yale University has undertaken a thorough reconstruction of its Medical Department, in the course of which the full-time principle will be introduced into the main clinical departments. The school was organized in 1813 and has long been an integral part of Yale University. It has, however, lacked separate endowment and has, therefore, up to this time, had no adequate development, even on the laboratory side. Its clinical facilities have consisted in a partial and unsatisfactory use of the New Haven Hospital, an institution supported partly by income from endowment and partly by subscription. Recognizing the fact that present conditions were neither creditable nor longer tolerable, the Trustees of the Hospital offered to the Corporation of Yale University complete medical and surgical control of the hospital provided the university undertook to furnish adequate laboratories, properly manned.[1] This situation made it possible for Yale to develop the type of university medical school which has proved so productive and efficient in the smaller university towns of Germany. The university has now set out to raise at least $2,000,000; to erect on and adjacent to the hospital site modern scientific laboratories; and to reorganize the main clinical departments on the full-time basis. Toward the sum above named, the General Education Board has voted $500,000.

[1]This contract which may also serve as a model is printed in the Appendix, pp. 231-240.

The full-time scheme is so recent an innovation that a few important points may properly be somewhat fully discussed in this connection.

FREEDOM UNRESTRICTED

The scheme involves no restriction of experience. In the letter of application from the faculty of the Johns Hopkins Medical School it was expressly stated that no limitation would be placed upon the members of the full-time clinical organization. They were not to be kept from seeing any patient that they chose to see. They can therefore take whatever steps they please to procure easy and frequent contact with incipient disturbances; they can also attend well-to-do patients afflicted with obscure or difficult disease.

In these matters, the advantage lies altogether with the full-time as against the part-time man. In reference, for example, to incipient disturbances, the ordinary consultant is, indeed, the very one whose advice is least apt to be invoked in the early stages of a malady. For the difficulty of seeing disease in its beginnings, however, a remedy, and what may indeed prove a practically complete remedy, lies at hand for the full-time man. The most neglected part of the resources available for clinical teaching and research is commonly the outpatient department or dispensary. The practitioner or consultant type of clinical teacher has not the time to develop, organize, and utilize the outpatient service. The connection between the dispensary and the usual indoor

clinic is, therefore, as a rule, nominal. It should be close and helpful, for a well-utilized dispensary will feed and supplement a well-organized clinic. The full-time organization favors such a relation. The instructor and his assistants can watch the outpatients for the purpose of detecting disorders at the very point of origin. Advantage has indeed already been taken of this in Baltimore. The favorable comments of the patients themselves on the care and sympathy with which they have been handled will rapidly build up the attendance and thus increase the reservoir from which usable material can be drawn.

Nor is the university clinician cut off from the well-to-do. The scheme seeks only to protect him from those who have no claim upon him beyond their ability to pay him. Inasmuch, however, as he receives no fee for his services, inasmuch as his time and energy are to be devoted, as far as may be, to teaching and research, he will have no interest in seeing patients whom others can handle as well as he. If well-to-do people come to his clinic under proper conditions, they can be received in a ward maintained for their reception. For such service as is rendered to them, a moderate professional fee will be charged; and this fee will be turned into the university fund out of which the department is maintained.

THE PAY WARD

This arrangement suggests the proper function of the pay ward in the university hospital. These hospitals,

like other hospitals, exist to do service. But it does not follow that they will do their greatest service by developing the largest pay ward that can be skilfully and efficiently administered. In no event can the pay ward of any single hospital undertake to receive more than a small fraction of the well-to-do sick. The rest must go elsewhere. Perhaps then a smaller pay ward which sets a standard will do the largest service for the most people, because it serves as a model which other establishments may follow. If a particular hospital undertook to serve larger numbers, it might be tempted to open the door to the profession generally or certain members thereof, with the result that the organization would be impaired and the work suffer. Mere size is therefore not necessarily imposed on the pay ward, in order to serve a large number of pay patients. This is an important consideration for all hospital administrators. But it has a peculiar urgency in case of hospitals associated with university medical schools. Their greatest and widest service is obviously their contribution to the training of successive generations of physicians and to the increase of knowledge and skill. A large pay ward filled with patients afflicted with ailments already well understood is an obstacle to both research and education; an obstacle to research, because it squanders the time of the staff; an obstacle to education, because, in addition, it lowers the ideals of the entire institution. A pay ward is needed, but it should be small—only large enough, in fact, to receive for each full-time man a limited number

of selected patients, for whom, in the interest of science, education, and humanity, it behooves him to care.

THE GENERAL PRACTITIONER

The full-time scheme involves no reflection upon the general practitioner. It does not raise the question of superiority as between him and the academic clinician. They are simply two different persons, discharging different functions. This differentiation of function is required by the increased complexity of science and social life; concentration and specialization under favorable conditions have become—as never before—requisite to systematic scientific achievement. As a matter of fact, they have always been more or less so. English medicine has been less continuously productive than German medicine, because in England concentration has been more frequently interrupted by professional success. The brilliant achievements of Hunter, Bright, and Simpson had worldly consequences that made further performance increasingly difficult. The genius triumphed, and was swept away by the demands of those whose fortunes enabled them to command his time. Concentration has therefore been necessary before now; but nevertheless the interrelation of recently developed sciences makes it more important now than ever before. The full-time scheme is the first frank and explicit attempt in medicine to accept the facts and to build a new structure upon them.

Meanwhile, the practitioner of medicine continues to

discharge important social, professional, and educational responsibilities. He has an important practical function in translating new knowledge into intelligent therapeutic practice; he is also in position to make valuable contributions to knowledge by observation and experiment. Witness the great achievements of James Mackenzie, a practising physician in a small English town, whose studies mark an epoch in our knowledge of cardiac disease. The practitioner will also have a place, more or less undefined at this moment, in the university medical school. It is, on the one hand, extremely important not to overload the full-time staff with routine; it is, on the other, important to save to the student whatever is valuable in the practitioner's experience and point of view. The practitioner can therefore be utilized in dispensary teaching, to some extent as clinical lecturer or demonstrator and perhaps in the handling of various specialties. There is no disposition on the part of those who support the full-time plan to deal arbitrarily or dogmatically with these questions; they must be solved on the basis of experience. Nevertheless, there can be no question that the university medical school will more and more get its character from the full-time staff. The school faculty will ultimately be composed only of full-time men; the medical board that controls hospital policy will, in the interest of effectiveness, be made up of departmental heads devoting themselves singly to the service of the university and the hospital. Substantially these steps have already been taken in Baltimore; and their success

there will lead to general adoption by schools of equal rank.

POSITIONS ATTRACTIVE

For the reasons just stated, the full-time posts will be occupied by men who desire to be absorbed in teaching and research. The three professorships established at the Johns Hopkins Medical School have been readily accepted at great personal sacrifice by men of conspicuous professional standing, all of whom have gladly renounced personal pecuniary advantage in order to procure ideal conditions for clinical teaching and investigation. A similar experience is confidently anticipated by the authorities of Washington University and Yale.

There is no occasion for surprise at this manifestation of practical idealism. With all our love of materialistic comfort, in no country in the world is there greater striving toward altruistic ends, keener or more constant sympathy, more frequent or more heedless sacrifice in the interest of science and humanity. The teaching profession abounds in men and women moved by nothing less than genuinely religious zeal; in every institution may be found many such—young, gifted, and devoted. An eminent Austrian pharmacologist who recently spent a winter in America declared that America was the very home of practical idealism. The full-time clinical chair appeals to idealistic motive. Medicine has always been humanitarian; in this form it becomes increasingly so. Not less fascinating than others in point of scientific

interest, the clinical branches are assuredly closer to the humanitarian appeal. They would seem therefore bound in due course to receive their needed share of recruits on the severe terms imposed by academic tradition. If, then, clinical progress is stimulated, if men are trained willing to devote themselves to science and humanity on such terms as obtain in universities, the full-time organization will have demonstrated its value and vindicated the judgment of those who first enlisted in its service.

VII. RURAL EDUCATION

IN THE opening section of the present volume attention was called to the organizations that have been fruitfully busy in arousing educational interest and directing educational effort in the Southern states. The Conference for Education in the South was, as was there pointed out, a more or less informal body, seeking to assemble at its annual meetings representatives of every phase of social, industrial, and educational interest, for the purpose of cultivating friendly intercourse, exchanging views, and harmonizing policies along broad lines. Out of this Conference, as has been previously stated, sprang the Southern Education Board, a more definite organization intended in the first instance to devote its energies to developing public sentiment and to procuring favorable action by legislatures and the people on educational matters.

RURAL SCHOOL SUPERVISORS

Among the more important steps taken by the Southern Education Board was the support, in coöperation with the Peabody Fund, which had previously begun this work, of rural school supervisors, charged with the task of supervising the rural schools to which public attention in the

South and indeed throughout the country was then turning. On the dissolution of the Peabody Board in 1914, the Southern Education Board requested the General Education Board to undertake the future maintenance and development of this phase of its work. The General Education Board thereupon authorized an investigation with a view to taking action in reference to the further support of these officers whose continuance was eagerly desired by the educational authorities of every Southern state.

On some of the significant points developed by this objective study of Southern conditions in the spring of the current year this volume has already touched, in connection with the secondary education movement. But the facts are of such importance that a small amount of repetition is necessary in order to show their bearing on the problem of the rural school.

IMPORTANCE OF RURAL EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH

The outstanding feature of the Southern situation is its predominantly rural character. Despite encroachment in the last two decades, due to the growth for the first time of some relatively large towns, the rural population of the entire region ranges from 70 per cent. in Louisiana to 88.5 per cent. in Mississippi; in seven states, the rural population is between 70 and 80 per cent. of the whole; in six more, between 80 per cent. and 90 per cent. Clearly public education cannot succeed in these states unless rural education can be made effective. The Southern

states must proceed on the assumption that the undertaking is feasible; their task is to ascertain how.

FAVORABLE CONDITIONS

To Southern faith in education attention has already been directed. There are, to be sure, backward districts, and great inert masses of population. But there are also forward districts, and active centres of enthusiasm and endeavor. The Conference for Education in the South had contributed to bringing about more solidarity in respect to educational endeavor than exists in any other section of the country. At times one encounters a freshness, vigor, and confidence that recall the Middle West and Northwest of twenty years ago; one meets teachers, administrators, laymen, aglow with what is to them a new discovery. Their spirit is that of the religious missionary. If the experiment of developing efficient rural education must, by the necessities of the case, be attempted, no more favorable opportunity than the present is likely to occur.

Moreover, the South is relatively prosperous, and is willingly devoting steadily increasing funds to school purposes. The farm demonstration work, supported by the government and the General Education Board, and now likely to be greatly extended, will more and more create underlying conditions favorable to educational development. Abundant statistics showing increasing provisions for schools can be readily quoted. The annual educational expenditures in North Carolina for

public elementary and secondary schools was $1,091,226 in 1901, $3,069,260 in 1909, $4,300,000 in 1913—that is, the annual school fund has quadrupled in twelve years. The expenditure of South Carolina in 1901 was $961,897; in 1909, $1,590,732; in 1913, $2,609,766; taxes raised by voluntary district taxation doubled in the same period. Arkansas appropriated $1,369,809 in 1900 and $4,279,478 in 1913; Tennessee raises altogether $5,000,000 a year for educational purposes; toward this sum the state gave last year $1,350,000; prior to 1903 it gave practically nothing at all. Of its net state revenue of $6,400,000, Virginia in 1914 devoted practically one half to education; Alabama devoted more than half. Even more hopeful and significant is the fact that, by voluntary community coöperation, funds are raised to build schoolhouses which are presented to the county. In Carolina County, Virginia, a thoroughly agricultural and by no means wealthy community, four schoolhouses for Negroes and three for whites have been lately built and paid for by local subscription and then donated to the county authorities. These instances need not be multiplied. Though the totals are not yet sufficiently large, they establish the growing ability and willingness of the Southern people to spend of their substance for the education of their children.

UNFAVORABLE CONDITIONS

On the other hand, there are certain conditions, some of which have already been touched on, that are for the time being distinctly unfavorable to orderly educational

development. As things now stand, there are still in several states serious obstacles to the conception and gradual execution of comprehensive plans. The state educational organization is in some states more or less defective. Few states have instituted really efficient methods of raising money; certain of the states have in recent years made some genuine improvements; others are moving in the same direction; elsewhere, as in Alabama, for example, local taxation for school purposes beyond one mill is unconstitutional. Perhaps nowhere has an entirely proper relationship between state, county, and district officials been worked out. The State Superintendent is still in some states a political official. In Kentucky and Alabama he may not be reëlected; in certain other states, more than a second term, even if not forbidden, is very improbable. The county superintendency is as yet too often poorly organized and occupied far too frequently by untrained incumbents, who in many cases give only part of their time to their school duties. Too often the official cannot expect reelection. In Kentucky, custom limits the occupant to two terms, though exceptions occasionally occur; over sixty of the one hundred and twenty counties of the state chose new men at the last election. In Alabama 40 per cent. of the county superintendents are also engaged in some other vocation, though of the sixty-eight assistant superintendents, 57 per cent. are trained teachers. Again, the teachers, for the most part poorly trained, are a constantly shifting body. Of the Alabama teach-

ers, 75 per cent. were new to their present places this year. In twelve Mississippi counties, a recent study shows that $63\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the teachers are in their first year in their present posts, 23 per cent. in their second; of twenty-four schools lately visited in Louisiana, only one school has the same teacher as last year. Finally, the prevailing schoolhouse has still only one room, so that in most rural schools an untrained girl is left to cope alone with all grades and all subjects simultaneously.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

The account just given does not understate the difficulties of the problem. But there is another side to it. An inventory must take account not only of such facts, but of efforts and tendencies, not less real and, from the standpoint of development, much more significant. The defects which we have mentioned, and others, as well, are acutely felt and candidly admitted. Efforts are being everywhere made to remedy them. In North Carolina, the county has already been made the unit of school taxation, school administration, and of the apportionment of school funds; and a series of amendments has concentrated the educational administrative power in an appointive county board of education that selects the county superintendent. This type of organization has already achieved excellent results. A majority of the county superintendents of the state devote their entire time to their educational duties. Some have held office for ten or twelve or even fourteen years, and their

salaries range as high as $2,400 with traveling expenses. The increase of salaries, in order to attract superior men, is indeed becoming quite common. In Mississippi, to give another instance, two thirds of the seventy-nine counties have now full-time superintendents, their salaries ranging as high as $1,800 per annum. Kentucky has made some progress along the same line. In South Carolina, two counties have petitioned the legislature for permission to abolish the elected in favor of an appointive superintendent, and this most important step was long ago taken in Virginia. In Arkansas, the office of County Superintendent was for the first time made possible by the legislature in 1907, since which date twenty-one counties have taken favorable action. Assistant superintendents, county supervisors, school supervisors, supervising teachers, whose duty it is to improve teaching and internal school conditions, are provided in Kentucky, South Carolina, Alabama, Louisiana, and other states. An unmistakable effort to supplant the one-room school with a consolidated school of three or four rooms and as many teachers, with the differentiation in teaching and grading thus made possible, is succeeding here and there, and the improvement is likely to be accelerated by the introduction of the inexpensive automobile. Four years ago, for example, there was not a consolidated school in Mississippi: there are now one hundred and seventy-five. In Pearl River County alone ten consolidated schools have replaced forty one-room schools. In Louisiana only twelve hundred one-room

schools are left: the state has three hundred school wagons in use. In Alabama, despite constitutional inhibitions, sporadic efforts at consolidation have been made. The consolidated school buildings represent a striking advance in every respect. They are tasteful, convenient, well lighted, well ventilated; their teachers are happier and more stable; the schools are at times equipped for the teaching of domestic science, and associated with the club work and demonstration work now under way in all the states. The very substance of rural education has in these instances been more or less transformed.

The foregoing examples are cited as evidence of the earnest striving characteristic of the situation. There is indeed no lack of such effort. But a serious difficulty, calculated to hamper and retard comprehensive reorganization, arises from the absence of sufficient continuous direction centred on the really fundamental factors of the situation. The South desires education; there is comparatively little need of undertaking to convince the people that popular education is essential to their development, though of course certain neighborhoods are backward and require such efforts. Moreover, the South is willing to pay for education more and more liberally, as it becomes able to do so. Finally, the South is struggling to educate itself and to improve its educational machinery and organization—struggling with courage and enthusiasm to overcome obstacles created by poverty and long indifference. But adequate direction is lacking. This is

Old Unity School, S. C.

Unity School, S. C. Second story for community purposes.

the most serious defect, and it is, unfortunately, a defect that the states themselves are not likely to remedy entirely at this time.

RURAL EDUCATION AGENTS

Under these circumstances the General Education Board was convinced that valuable service could be rendered through the establishment of a rural education agent attached to the office of the State Superintendent and holding office continuously. The Board therefore authorized the expenditure of not exceeding $45,000 during the current year for the salaries and expenses of such officers in eleven Southern states. Inasmuch as rural school conditions are backward in other sections of the country as well, the Board resolved further to offer similar facilities to selected states in the North, East and West.

It was understood that it would be the function of the rural school agent to assist in making a thorough and dispassionate survey of rural education in his state, including laws, organization, finance, equipment, teaching force and methods, etc. On this basis, under the direction of the State Department of Education and in coöperation with other appropriate agencies, organizations, and individuals, an adequate local program was to be worked out. In general, this program should aim to bring about a readjustment, which will substitute the county for the district as the unit of organization, administration, and finance; an appointive superintendent

with proper qualifications was to take the place of the elected superintendent; local as well as state taxation was to be made possible; consolidated schools to be favored; the one-room school to be reorganized and developed; facilities to be provided for training teachers for a service rendered more permanent, more attractive, and more fruitful. It was to be the business of the rural education agent to aid the superintendent in recommending the program agreed on to the people of the state, through popular enlightenment and through the organization of all available forces. His time and energy were thus to be devoted to establishing the fundamental general conditions necessary to sound development. If improved conditions and improved facilities are thus provided, better schools and better teaching will result; intensive improvement of the schools, one at a time, may then profitably be undertaken by local authorities or otherwise.

Subsequent to the passage by the General Education Board of the resolution above mentioned, the secretaries of the Board met the Southern State Superintendents in conference at Nashville. These officials were unanimous in seeking the Board's coöperation. In conformity with the policy which has been repeatedly emphasized in this report, it was made clear that every state must handle its problem in its own way; that the Board had no detailed program to propose. This conference, however, developed distinct agreement to the effect that the most useful service that could at this juncture be rendered lay

in the direction of bringing about the improved underlying conditions above noted, as respects organization, taxation, length of school terms, salaries, training of teachers, etc. The rural school agent was to be an instrument in the hands of the State Superintendent to improve conditions as to those and other matters, the State Superintendent being the judge as to the relative urgency of the several items forming the program. On this basis it was agreed that a concerted effort on more or less similar lines would result, the outcome of which would be a common movement toward a common end.

VIII. NEGRO EDUCATION

THE improvement of facilities for the education of the Negro was among the first subjects taken up by the General Education Board. In dealing with it, the Board has followed the method already described in connection with other activities: thorough inquiries were made for the purpose of learning the details of the existing status—not only educational, but social and economic; and gifts of a tentative character were made in order that any program ultimately adopted might be the outcome of experiment and demonstration. In determining its successive steps, the Board has drawn on various sources of information and counsel. Its original surveys dealt fully with the conditions of Negro schools in the several states, public and private; special inquiries have from time to time thrown light on particular aspects of the problem; the Secretary of the Board was for several years general agent of the Slater Fund, and in this capacity traveled extensively through the South, visiting Negro schools and conferring with both whites and blacks on the subject of Negro education; and the trustees and the president of the Jeanes Fund have been in close consultation and coöperation with the officers and members of the General Education Board.

A Negro Rural School.

Queensland Industrial School, Ben Hill County, Ga.

FIRST STEPS IN NEGRO EDUCATION

In the years immediately following the war Negro schools were founded throughout the South by several northern organizations, such, for example, as the American Missionary Association, the Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church, the Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church, the American Baptist Home Mission Society, and other similar organizations. These schools have, with varying degrees of success, rendered a large service, particularly in the training of teachers for the public schools and in the training of colored ministers. In some cases they have developed colleges which will form the nucleus of a system of schools for the higher education of Negroes. Any discussion of Negro education must recognize the disinterested motives of these organizations and the importance and value of the schools maintained by them.

The Negroes themselves have organized a large number of local schools, some of which have attained size and importance. These schools represent the aspiration of the Negro for self-culture, and have been accompanied in many cases by sacrifice of the highest character. In addition to this, as is well known, large schools like Hampton and Tuskegee, which are strictly of private foundation, have been established. There are also a number of private schools of undoubted value, like the schools located at Manassas, Va.; Calhoun, Snow Hill,

and Mt. Meigs, Ala.; St. Helena Island, S. C.; Utica, Miss.; and others, which are largely supported by contributions from the North.

Moreover, all the states of the South have founded normal schools for the training of Negro teachers, such, for example, as the well-known institutions at Normal and Montgomery, Alabama; Pine Bluff, Arkansas; Tallahassee, Florida; Frankfort, Kentucky; Baton Rouge, Louisiana; Alcorn, Mississippi; Greensboro and Winston-Salem, North Carolina; Orangeburg, South Carolina; Nashville, Tennessee; Prairie View, Texas; and Petersburg, Virginia.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL FUNDAMENTAL

While fully recognizing the importance of the work above described, and the importance of encouraging private initiative in this as in other educational fields, the Board, nevertheless, has kept steadily in view the obvious fact that in the education of the Negro as of the whites the public school must be the main reliance. An educational agency is needed large enough, well enough supported and organized to train enormous masses in the arts of civilization. The public school is the sole instrumentality equal to a task of such magnitude. Moreover, public schools can be developed only through the leadership of the Southern white. Northern philanthropy may assist, as it has assisted and is assisting, generously, intelligently, and sympathetically. But the main privilege and responsibility necessarily rest at this

New two-room Notasulga Schoolhouse, Ala., pupils and teacher. This schoolhouse was erected at a cost of $642.75. Patrons donated in cash $223.40, labor $99.35, land $20.

juncture upon the South itself, and upon that part of the Southern people that is strongest in wealth, intelligence, and power. The General Education Board therefore resolved that, while certain privately managed institutions must be aided, its main purpose required that it coöperate with progressive Southern sentiment in creating publicly supported educational systems.

As education produces its natural results, the wealth, energy, and ambition of the Negroes themselves become more and more important factors. The Board has therefore assisted the Negro to help himself, through his private schools, not so much by working upon him as by working with him; not by founding and supporting schools for him, but rather by helping him to found and support schools for himself. Fortunately, experience has shown that the Negroes welcome opportunities to turn these schools over to the public school system when the authorities are ready to support them; the two lines of effort thus move in harmony toward a single goal—an adequate public school organization.

And it is especially the *rural* public school that is of interest to the Southern Negro. About 80 per cent. of the Negroes in the Southern states live on farms. City schools, normal schools, and colleges do but little for people who live in the open country. They can be helped only as efficient rural schools are developed. The problem is in principle identical with that discussed in the preceding chapter; it is more difficult only because of the greater poverty of the black, his limited develop-

ment, and the prejudices that must be overcome. He profits, however, by the same tendencies that at the moment assist the rural whites: the turning of public sentiment in the direction of the country; the rise in value of farm lands and farm products due to the increased cost of living in towns; the increase in farm productivity by the introduction of machinery and better methods of farming; the general introduction of conveniences and amenities through the telephone, good roads, rapid transit, free delivery, and the parcel post. The data adduced in connection with farm demonstrations[1] prove that the Negro is eagerly taking advantage of his opportunities to attain economic independence in the country; a fact that renders educational improvement at once more necessary, more hopeful, and more certain.

STATE SUPERVISORS OF NEGRO RURAL SCHOOLS

For the purpose of arousing interest and furnishing intelligent and specialized guidance, a state supervisor of Negro schools was supported in Virginia by the Peabody Education Fund and the Southern Education Board. The appointee had already demonstrated the value of such supervision while superintendent of schools in Henrico County, Virginia. The General Education Board, recognizing the importance of this work, decided to extend it throughout the South, as opportunity occurred. The Board offered to coöperate with state departments of education by furnishing funds adequate to pay the

[1] See pp. 54-57.

Poplar Lawn School, Va., "Before and After."

salaries and expenses of state agents for Negro rural schools. Appropriations were to be made to the state departments and only on application of these departments; the agent—or supervisor, as he is usually called—was to be chosen by the State Superintendent of Education and thus become a state official with all the powers and responsibilities of such a position. On this basis, agents are now supported by the General Education Board in the states of Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Kentucky, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia.

These agents are white men who have had large and successful experience in school management. They have in every instance gained the confidence not only of the colored people and the public school authorities, but of white citizens in general. As representing the state department, they have the entrée to all counties, communities, and schools: they transact the state's business with county superintendents, county school boards, local trustees, and teachers. They interest the Negroes of a vicinity in the local school and bring the two races to join in its improvement. Substantial sums have thus been obtained from both races for local school improvements. They have already brought about the consolidation of several weak schools into central schools; they have participated in planning and constructing school buildings; in choosing teachers; in improving the curriculum, especially along industrial and domestic lines; in effecting coöperation between the schools, farm demonstration and club agents, and in securing gradually in-

creasing allotments from public funds, of which, however, the expenditure on the Negro is still disproportionately small. For the support of these agents, the General Education Board appropriates $2,500 each per year for salary, and a sum not to exceed $1,000 each for necessary expenses.

COÖPERATION WITH THE ANNA T. JEANES FUND

The effectiveness of this work has been greatly increased by its intimate association with the activities of the industrial supervisors and teachers supported by the Jeanes Fund. These teachers, appointed by the county superintendent and working under his direction, are at the same time in close coöperation with the state agent maintained by the General Education Board. At the present time 128 such teachers are at work. They are for the most part graduates of Hampton, Tuskegee, Petersburg, Fisk, Atlanta, Spelman, and kindred institutions. Each teacher visits a number of the country schools, gives a lesson in some industry, plans with the regular teacher to give additional lessons in her absence, organizes parents' clubs, and starts a movement for better school equipment or longer term, counsels the local teacher about her daily teaching, and stirs the community to united effort to better the school. Many of these teachers are employed for the entire year; when school is no longer in session, they carry on similar work in the community. Wherever the industrial teacher and the rural school supervisor have gone, quick improvement is perceptible in

Old school, Burkeville, Va.

New school, three rooms, Burkeville, Va.

the physical appearance of grounds, buildings, and pupils. Improvement leagues are formed; money is raised by subscription to paint or whitewash the building, to buy a stove and procure the necessary equipment for cooking classes among both the girls and their mothers. Elementary sanitation is inculcated; fairs and exhibitions are held through which the results are brought together for the pleasure and enlightenment of pupils and patrons. In 1912-13, twenty-three supervising teachers worked under the general direction of the state supervisor in twenty-five Virginia counties: 591 schools were visited, 417 of them regularly; 189 extended their terms by one month, their patrons bearing the expense; 20 new schoolhouses were built at a cost of $23,808; 15 more were enlarged at a cost of $2,212; 428; school leagues raised among Negroes $22,655. In 1913-14, supervising industrial teachers worked in 27 counties; 22 new Negro schoolhouses, costing $18,230, were built; 12 enlarged, at a cost of $3,612; 182 extended their terms one month through subscriptions, mainly of their patrons; 125 sanitary outhouses were built; $28,673 was raised by Negroes for school improvements. It is impossible to draw a sharp line between this work and that of the clubs described as part of the farm demonstrations. In Virginia, for example, 14 teachers report 617 girls in the clubs of 15 counties with 416 home gardens, of which two thirds are "excellent"; the girls put up 10,504 jars of vegetables for home use, their mothers 12,269. "I spent August 5th and 6th with Superintendent Washington of Caroline County," writes the state supervisor

in September, 1913. "We joined the supervising teacher and the special agent in charge of canning clubs, and drove through the county, visiting the gardens of the various members of the club. Every garden was laid off in straight rows, usually eight, with a walk in the middle. There were two rows of flowers, two rows of cabbage, two rows of snap beans, one early and one late, and two rows of tomatoes. They were well cultivated, clean of weeds. Most of them had resisted the temptation to 'hill' the tomatoes, and cultivated level, as they were directed. In nearly every case the tomatoes were held up by some support.

"On the 8th there was held at Bowling Green the first Conference of the Girls' Canning and Poultry Clubs of Caroline County. Nearly all of the eighty members were present with their parents and other members of their families. They brought exhibits of their vegetables, canned goods, bread, cake, sewing, poultry, etc. Simple prizes given by the county school board were awarded. Girls who had been most successful and those who had overcome unusual difficulties were called on to tell how they cultivated their gardens, how they made fences, how they canned their tomatoes, or baked bread, etc. The prize for the best kept garden was awarded to two motherless girls eleven and twelve years of age, who kept house for their father. Their garden, located in a piece of newly cleared land, was a model of neatness and careful cultivation." Similar experiences can be reported from the other states.

IMPROVED RELATIONS OF RACES

A more cordial relation between the races has followed in the wake of educational progress. Nothing, indeed, is of fairer promise than the awakened interest of the white—superintendent and layman—in the improvement of Negro schools. For example, a conference of Alabama County Superintendents with the State Superintendent and the State Supervisor of Negro Schools visits Tuskegee Institute in a body and confesses "a new vision in regard to the Negro"; again, the state supervisor addresses the Y. M. C. A. of the State College of Agriculture at Auburn, Alabama, on the Negro problem, and forty-five members subsequently accompany him on a visit of inspection to Tuskegee. At one of the summer institutes held for Negro teachers in Georgia, the work of the Negro industrial teacher was so novel and interesting that the white county superintendent asked her to come over to the white institute in order to give a demonstration of her work. She was kept half a day answering questions and explaining the way she did the work. At other times, white teachers have gone to see what the Negroes were doing in their institute. What they observe surprises the whites, and the experience affords pleasure and stimulation to the Negro teachers. "Shall this not be a mighty entering wedge to reach the prejudices and the sympathies of the white people?" asks the state agent in reporting the incidents. From North Carolina comes an account of a meeting of lead-

ing white citizens at the Slater Normal School for Negroes. Among them were the city and county superintendents of schools and several members of the Board of Trustees. The object of the meeting was to study the condition and needs of the normal school in order to devise means by which it may train more and better teachers and serve the Negro race more effectively. Plans for the erection of a new dormitory for girls, and for improving the teacher training course were discussed.

IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHERS

By way of improving the quality of the teaching, summer institutes have been widely developed by the state supervisors. In 1913, thirty-seven such institutes were conducted in Alabama, with an attendance of 1,800 teachers, who received instruction in academic, industrial, and domestic branches; of the total expense of $2,600, the state contributed $1,500, the teachers themselves $1,000, and the Slater Board $100. In Arkansas, five State Industrial Summer Normal Schools were held in June, 1914. The attendance was 935. Meanwhile, county institutes were simultaneously in progress throughout the state. Large summer schools, in which the state supervisors assist, are held regularly at Hampton, Tuskegee, and other institutions. "A spirit of helpfulness and devotion characterized the work of these Negro educators," writes the white supervisor in his account of the summer's efforts. Similar undertakings are in progress in every Southern state.

Sewing lesson in a Gloucester County school, Va.

Northampton County exhibit, Va.

SELF-HELP

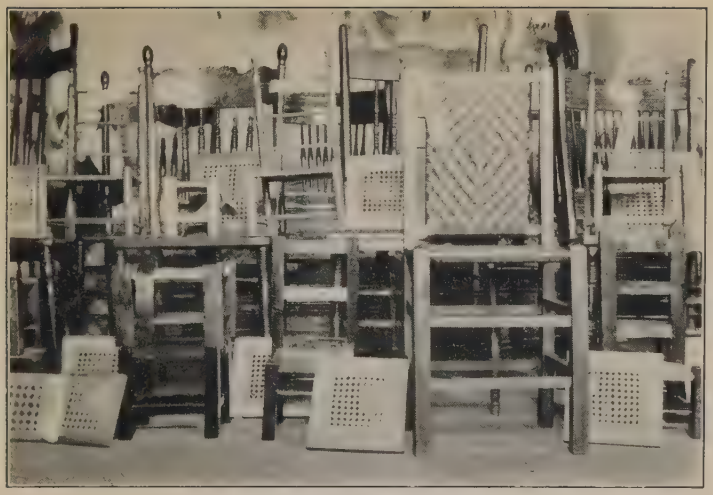
Most interesting and significant of all are the indications of self-help reported from all directions. Christian County, Kentucky, reports in a single year 13 new buildings, 5 new sites, 7 schools with new furniture, 63 new outbuildings, 2 new fences, 2 new cisterns, 31 new stoves —toward all of which the colored people themselves had subscribed more than half. The whites of Fordyce, Arkansas, donated land and lumber for a new building for the Negro school; the colored people of the town contributed $150 toward putting it up. In Ben Hill County, Georgia, a $1,600 schoolhouse and ten acres of land were furnished by the town for an industrial school; the Negroes thereupon raised $550, which the county duplicated, to add two more rooms and an additional teacher. At Spottsylvania, Virginia, the Negroes had acquired 160 acres of land and $800 toward a private secondary school; the school board, impressed by their eagerness, took it over as a public graded school to be maintained by the county. In Caroline County, Virginia. whites and blacks have emulated each other in consolidating and reconstructing, largely out of their own pockets, the country schools. The experience of this county, indeed, proves the soundness of the policy that has thus far been pursued. The Negroes had established at Bowling Green an Industrial Academy with ten acres of land and a building costing together $2,000; this they have offered to turn over to the county school

board to be used as a county training school for teachers —the state contributing $350, the Slater Fund $500 annually toward maintenance. Four rural schools, built by the Negroes at a cost of $5,400, and three others in process of construction, to cost $4,900, have been donated to the county. These schools all previously had one room and ran for five months: now they have from two to five rooms and run for eight months. The whites of Caroline County look with sympathy and pride on these improvements; the donation of the schools is an evidence of the mutual trust and confidence that has sprung up between the two races. Similar examples can be cited from Amelia County, Charlotte County, Cumberland County, and elsewhere.

THE JEANES FUND OF THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

The income from $200,000 given to the General Education Board by Miss Anna T. Jeanes[1] has been utilized in stimulating efforts of this kind. Between 1906 and 1912, seventy-four schools in Alabama were thus aided; toward buildings and equipment, costing $54,153, the Jeanes Fund of the General Education Board contributed $18,888; Negro patrons of the schools, $35,265; toward $17,690 spent in maintenance in the year 1910-11, the Fund gave $1,068, county boards, $9,070, and Negro patrons, $7,552.

[1] See Appendix, pp. 223.



Chair caning exhibit, Henrico County, Va.

Specimens of manual training work and sewing done by Negro school children of Isle of Wight County, Va. Farmers' Conference Exhibit, 1912, Hampton Institute.

APPROPRIATIONS TO INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTES

At the present time, schools are fortunate if they obtain as principals and teachers the graduates of one of the better industrial schools for Negroes. The General Education Board has therefore assisted some of the more efficient of these industrial training schools as follows:

Hampton Institute	$138,000.00
Tuskegee Institute	135,483.48
Spelman Seminary	196,912.88
Other Institutions	85,384.77
Total	$555,781.13

With the same end in view, gifts toward improved physical equipment have been made to a number of secondary schools owned or controlled by Negroes themselves—e. g., Waters Normal Institute (Winton, North Carolina); Thompson Institute (Lumberton, North Carolina); Jeruel Academy (Athens, Georgia); Americus Institute (Americus, Georgia); Howe Institute (Memphis, Tennessee); Florida Baptist Academy (Jacksonville, Florida); and others.

HIGHER EDUCATION OF THE NEGRO

While the main stress has been, and for some time must continue to be, laid on the activities which we have described, it has also been recognized that the higher education of the Negro ought not to be neglected. The reasoning followed in dealing with secondary schools

and colleges for whites is equally valid for Negroes. That is, if primary and secondary Negro schools are to have good teachers, principals, and supervisors, provision must be made for the higher training of these instructors and officers. Moreover, competent Negroes often desire higher education as the basis for some form of specialized or professional training. Personal aspiration and race welfare unite in suggesting the development of suitable academic opportunities for those who are capable.

In the years immediately succeeding the war, many institutions were founded for the higher education of Negroes. In too many instances, however, these well-meant endeavors were entered upon without due consideration of the magnitude of the work and the difficulties involved. Colleges and universities may be never so desirable, but such institutions cannot be created without a competent faculty, a capable student body, suitable facilities, and ample and continuous financial support.

In the period with which we are dealing, none of these essential conditions could be met. A small number of capable teachers were indeed secured—mainly Northern men and women inspired by missionary spirit; but, generally speaking, scholarly faculties could not at that time be recruited for the far too numerous colleges and universities established for the colored race. Again, as is evident from the previous sections of this chapter, there were practically no organized facilities for the preliminary training of a body of college students.

Boy and girl in their garden getting instructions from teacher.

A prize garden, Caroline County, Va. Two rows of flowers in middle, then on each side a row of cabbage, beans, and tomatoes.

Finally, funds in sufficient amounts were yet to be raised and plants provided.

In the last few years, however, order has begun to emerge from chaos. Public school systems are beginning to take shape; and though in the main their work is still limited to the elementary grades, nevertheless, here and there—as, for example, at Little Rock—an excellent public high school has been established. Preparatory schools have also been developed—either as the academic departments of industrial institutes, or in connection with the colleges and universities. Thus, in one way or another, fair opportunities for procuring the necessary secondary training are now open to energetic boys and girls who enjoy the necessary support or are willing "to work their way through."

Meanwhile, the formation of a better teaching staff has become feasible. A small number of colored men and women have been graduated by Oberlin, Amherst, Brown, Harvard, and other institutions, a large proportion of whom have from the outset had college teaching definitely in view; in addition, many of the most capable graduates of the Negro colleges, keenly realizing the deficiencies of their training, have from time to time sought the larger opportunities offered by the summer schools or extension courses at Columbia, the University of Chicago, and elsewhere.

Nevertheless, the situation still abounds in difficulties. Pure and high motives led religious and philanthropic organizations, white and colored, to establish their so-

called colleges and universities. But, as there was no coöperation at the outset, so there has been no coöperation since. Each of the interested bodies went, and has continued to go, its own way, with little regard to what other similar bodies had undertaken or were intending. The number of institutions now struggling for existence is out of all relation to the number of qualified teachers and students procurable, the financial resources available for support, and the service to be performed.

Inevitably, therefore, internal college conditions are bound to be unsatisfactory. A college consists essentially of an adequate and homogeneous student body, and a competent staff occupied with their training. But the aggregate number of competent students is so small that there are colleges with as few as eight or ten collegiate students. In consequence of this scarcity of students trained up to college level, secondary and even elementary instruction forms the main activity of most Negro colleges and universities. In only one institution is it claimed that as many as one half the students are above the high school level; in most institutions the number of college students is less than 10 per cent. of the total enrolment. Besides, limited as it is, the student body is far from being sufficiently uniform in training or capacity. Under these circumstances the college teachers are required to do an inordinately large amount of non-collegiate teaching; and their college instruction is addressed to an unduly small and a distinctly uneven student body.

These difficulties are in many places aggravated by the teachers themselves, who pitch their instruction on a plane at once too high and too remote. The mistake is not an unnatural one. These teachers are men and women of unusual ability, energy, and ambition. Eager to train at a high level the future leaders of their race, they emulate the procedure of the colleges for white boys in which they have themselves studied. As a result, their teaching is too often concerned with tasks which their students are incapable of mastering, or for which there is no practical outcome. The courses offered are often too abstract, too ambitious, or too learned. The students are not lacking in earnestness; they apply themselves to their tasks with all the energy they can summon. But the tasks are too frequently beyond their strength. They strain to grasp what is simply beyond their reach.

From the foregoing discussion, several important conclusions follow. A higher education ought to be furnished to capable Negro men and women; but the mere attempt to deliver the traditional college curriculum to the Negro does not constitute a higher education. His own needs, environment, capacity, and opportunity should be freshly studied and college curricula should be framed in the light of the facts thus elicited. Moreover, these curricula should all be regarded as experimental. Teachers should be constantly on the lookout, in order to determine whether the preparatory training of the student is adequate to the collegiate tasks imposed, and,

if so, whether the tasks in question subserve their intended purpose. As conditions change, particularly as elementary and secondary training improves, corresponding readjustments can be made. The entire procedure must, however, be tentative and critical, rather than cut-and-dried or imitative. Obviously, the organization and management of Negro colleges at this juncture call for educational initiative and resourcefulness in unusual measure.

It is clear that under existing conditions only a few efficient colleges for Negroes can or ought to be maintained. The organizations engaged in promoting the higher education of the race should therefore concentrate on a reduced number of institutions. In order to obtain a sufficiently large number of qualified students more feeding schools should be developed; indeed, some of the so-called colleges might well be converted into secondary schools for this purpose. For the system thus created, consisting of several preparatory schools and a few colleges, larger financial support should then be arranged.

Finally, for each of the few colleges thus reorganized, highly intelligent educational direction is required. The function of the head of a Negro college is necessarily somewhat different from that of the usual college or university president. He must, of course, be a good administrator; but a very large part of his energy must be devoted to outright pedagogical effort. He must not only select, but assist in training, his teachers; and he must by observation and conference assure himself that

the instruction offered is calculated to achieve the end in view. For some time to come he will resemble a principal or director rather than a university president, as that officer is usually conceived.

The General Education Board has made appropriations to Negro colleges and universities as follows:

Atlanta University	$ 8,000
Florida Baptist Academy	13,000
Fisk University	70,000
Lane College	7,000
Livingstone College	12,500
Shaw University	18,000
Virginia Union University	11,500
Total	$140,000

In Memoriam

Jabez Lamar Monroe Curry
William Henry Baldwin, Jr.
William Rainey Harper
Morris Ketchum Jesup
Daniel Coit Gilman
Robert Curtis Ogden

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

AN ACT TO INCORPORATE THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

Be it Enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress Assembled, That William H. Baldwin, Jr., Jabez L. M. Curry, Frederick T. Gates, Daniel C. Gilman, Morris K. Jesup, Robert C. Ogden, Walter H. Page, George Foster Peabody, and Albert Shaw, and their successors, be, and they hereby are, constituted a body corporate of the District of Columbia; that the name of such body corporate shall be GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD and that by such name the said persons and their successors shall have perpetual succession.

Sec. 2. That the object of the said corporation shall be the promotion of education within the United States of America, without distinction of race, sex, or creed.

Sec. 3. That for the promotion of such object the said corporation shall have power to build, improve, enlarge, or equip, or to aid others to build, improve, enlarge, or equip, buildings for elementary or primary schools, industrial schools, technical schools, normal schools, training schools for teachers, or schools of any grade, or for higher institutions of learning, or, in connection therewith, libraries, workshops, gardens, kitchens, or other educational accessories; to establish, maintain, or endow, or aid others to establish, maintain, or endow,

elementary or primary schools, industrial schools, technical schools, normal schools, training schools for teachers, or schools of any grade, or higher institutions of learning; to employ or aid others to employ teachers and lecturers; to aid, coöperate with, or endow associations or other corporations engaged in educational work within the United States of America, or to donate to any such association or corporation any property or moneys which shall at any time be held by the said corporation hereby constituted; to collect educational statistics and information, and to publish and distribute documents and reports containing the same, and in general to do and perform all things necessary or convenient for the promotion of the object of the corporation.

Sec. 4. That the said corporation shall further have power to have and use a common seal and to alter and change the same at its pleasure; to sue or be sued in any court of the United States or other court of competent jurisdiction; to make by-laws for the admission or exclusion of its members, for the election of its trustees, officers, and agents, and otherwise; for the casting of votes by its members or trustees by proxy; for the purchase, management, sale, or transfer of its property; the investment and control of its funds and the general transaction of its business; to take or receive, whether by gift, grant, devise, bequest, or purchase, any real or personal estate, or to hold, grant, convey, hire, or lease the same for the purposes of its incorporation; to accept and administer any trust of money or of real or personal estate for any educational purpose within the object of the corporation as aforesaid; to prescribe by by-laws or otherwise the terms and conditions upon which money, real estate, or personal estate shall be acquired or received by the said corporation, and for the grant, trans-

fer, assignment, or donation of any or all property of the said corporation, real or personal, to any society or corporation for any of the said purposes for which the said corporation is hereby incorporated, and otherwise generally for the management of the property and the transaction of the business of the corporation.

Sec. 5. That the members of the corporation shall be not less than nine in number and not more than seventeen, as may be prescribed by the by-laws of the corporation: *provided, however*, That if and when the number of members shall be less than nine, the members remaining shall have power to add and shall add to their number until the number shall be not less than nine: *and provided* That no act of the corporation shall be void because at the time such act shall be done the number of the members of the corporation shall be less than nine; that all the members of the corporation shall be its trustees; that no member of the said association shall, by reason of such membership or his trusteeship, be personally liable for any of its debts or obligations; that each member of the corporation shall hold his membership for a term of three years and until his successor shall be chosen: *provided, however*, That the members shall be at all times divided into three classes numerically, as nearly as may be, and that the original members shall, at their first meeting, or as soon thereafter as shall be convenient, be divided into three classes, the members of the first class to hold their membership and office until the expiration of one year from the first day of January next after the enactment of this law, the members of the second class until the expiration of two years thereafter, and the members of the third class until the expiration of three years thereafter, and that in every case the member shall hold office after the expiration of his term

until his successor shall be chosen: *and provided further*, That, in case any member shall, by death, resignation, incapacity to act, or otherwise, cease to be a member during his term, his successor shall be chosen to serve for the remainder of such term and until his successor shall be chosen; and that the principal office of the said corporation shall be in the City of Washington, District of Columbia: *provided*, That meetings may be held elsewhere within the United States as may be determined by the members or provided by the by-laws.

Sec. 6. That all real property of the corporation within the District of Columbia which shall be used by the corporation for the educational or other purposes of the corporation as aforesaid, other than the purpose of producing income, and all personal property and funds of the corporation held, used, or invested for educational purposes as aforesaid, or to produce income to be used for such purposes, shall be exempt from taxation: *provided, however*, That this exemption shall not apply to any property of the corporation which shall not be used for, or the income of which shall not be applied to, the educational purposes of the corporation: *and provided further*, That the corporation shall annually file with the Secretary of the Interior of the United States a report in writing, stating in detail the property, real and personal, held by the corporation, and the expenditure or other use or disposition of the same or the income thereof during the preceding year.

Sec. 7. That this charter shall be subject to alteration, amendment, or repeal at the pleasure of the Congress of the United States.

APPENDIX II

LETTERS ANNOUNCING GIFTS TO THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD AND REPLIES THERETO

(*a*) *Correspondence with Mr. Rockefeller*

"March 1, 1902.

"*Dear Mr. Baldwin:*

"My father understands that William H. Baldwin, Jr., Jabez L. M. Curry, Frederick T. Gates, Daniel C. Gilman, Morris K. Jesup, Robert C. Ogden, Walter H. Page, George Foster Peabody, Albert Shaw, have formed themselves into an association called the 'General Education Board,' pending the formalities necessary to incorporate themselves into a corporation which shall be known as the 'General Education Board';

"That the object of this Board is to promote education in the United States of America without distinction of sex, race, or creed;

"That the immediate intention of the Board is to devote itself to studying and aiding to promote the educational needs of the people of our Southern States.

"Upon this understanding my father hereby pledges to the Board the sum of One Million Dollars ($1,000,000) to be expended at its discretion during a period of ten years, and will make payments under such pledges from time to time as requested by the Board or its Executive Committee through its duly authorized officers.

"Very truly,

"(Signed) JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER, JR.

"*Mr. William H. Baldwin, Jr., Chairman of the General Education Board, New York City.*"

To this letter the following reply was sent:

"March 8, 1902.

"*Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr.*, 26 *Broadway, New York.*

"My dear Mr. Rockefeller: On behalf of the Trustees of the General Education Board, I beg to acknowledge receipt of your letter dated March 1st, in which pledge is made, in behalf of Mr. John D. Rockefeller, of one million dollars to be expended at the discretion of the General Education Board during a period of ten years.

"I beg to confirm your understanding that William H. Baldwin, Jr., Jabez L. M. Curry, Frederick T. Gates, Daniel C. Gilman, Morris K. Jesup, Robert C. Ogden, Walter H. Page, George Foster Peabody, Albert Shaw have formed themselves into an Association to be called the 'General Education Board,' with temporary Articles of Association pending the formalities necessary to incorporate themselves into a corporation under Special Charter from the United States Congress; and, further, that the object of the Board is to promote education in the United States of America, without distinction of sex, race, or creed, and that immediate attention is to be given to the promotion of the educational needs of the people in the Southern States.

"I beg further to state that immediate steps were taken through eminent counsel, Mr. Edward M. Shepard, to prepare a charter, which has met with the approval of the members of the Board, and that the charter is now in the hands of United States Senator Aldrich, to be presented to Congress at a favorable moment.

"In accepting this munificent gift on behalf of the Board, I wish to assure you of the cordial and loyal support which has been shown by each Trustee. I believe

that no set of men could have been selected to represent more fully the advanced movement of the education of the Southern people. It is our belief that never in the past has the time been so opportune as this moment for an active and aggressive movement in the Southern States, and especially it is to be noted that the educational point of view of the Trustees of the General Education Board is in perfect harmony with that of the Southern men who represent the intelligent opinion of the South.

"In return for your generous offer, we pledge our devoted support to the principles which have been laid down in our Statement of Policy, and it will be our chief aim to prove ourselves worthy of the great responsibility which you have placed upon us.

"I enclose you herewith a copy of our Statement of Policy, together with a copy of the temporary Articles of Association, and a copy of the proposed Act to Incorporate the General Education Board.

"This letter has been approved by the Executive Committee of the Board, at a meeting held on Monday, March 17th, 1902.

"Very respectfully,

"(Signed) W. H. BALDWIN, JR.,
"Chairman."

On June 30, 1905, the Board received the following communication:

"*To Messrs. Wallace Buttrick and Starr J. Murphy, Secretaries and Executive Officers, General Education Board.*

"DEAR SIRS: I am authorized by Mr. John D. Rockefeller to say that he will contribute to the General Education Board the sum of ten million dollars ($10,000,000),

to be paid October first next, in cash, or, at his option, in income producing securities, at their market value, the principal to be held in perpetuity as a foundation for education, the income above expenses of administration to be distributed to, or used for the benefit of, such institutions of learning, at such times, in such amounts, for such purposes and under such conditions, or employed in such other ways, as the Board may deem best adapted to promote a comprehensive system of higher education in the United States.

"Yours very truly,

"(Signed) F. T. GATES."

On February 7, 1907, the Board received the following communication:

"February 5, 1907.

"*General Education Board, 54 William Street, New York City.*

"GENTLEMEN: My father authorizes me to say that on or before April 1, 1907, he will give to the General Education Board income bearing securities, the present market value of which is about thirty-two million dollars ($32,000,000), one-third to be added to the permanent endowment of the Board, two-thirds to be applied to such specific objects within the corporate purposes of the Board as either he or I may from time to time direct, any remainder, not so designated at the death of the survivor, to be added to the permanent endowment of the Board.

"Very truly,

"(Signed) JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER, JR."

To this reply was made as follows:

"New York, February 7, 1907.

"*Mr. John D. Rockefeller, New York City.*

"DEAR SIR: The General Education Board acknowledges the receipt of the communication of February 5th, 1907, from Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., a member of this body, announcing your decision to give to the Board, for the purpose of its organization, securities of the current value of thirty-two million dollars ($32,000,000). The General Education Board accepts this gift with a deep sense of gratitude to you and of responsibility to society. This sum, added to the eleven millions ($11,000,000) which you have formerly given to this Board, makes the General Education Board the guardian and administrator of a total trust fund of forty-three million dollars ($43,000,000).

"This is the largest sum ever given by a man in the history of the race for any social or philanthropic purposes. The Board congratulates you upon the high and wise impulse which has moved you to this deed, and desires to thank you, in behalf of all educational interests whose development it will advance, in behalf of our country whose civilization for all time it should be made to strengthen and elevate, and in behalf of mankind everywhere in whose interest it has been given and for whose use it is dedicated.

"The administration of this fund entails upon the General Education Board the most far-reaching responsibility ever placed upon any educational organization in the world. As members of the Board we accept this responsibility, conscious alike of its difficulties and opportunities. We will use our best wisdom to transmute your gift into intellectual and moral power, counting it a

supreme privilege to dedicate whatever strength we have to its just use in the service of men.

"Very respectfully yours,

"(Signed)

Frederick T. Gates	John D. Rockefeller, Jr.
Daniel C. Gilman	Wallace Buttrick
Morris K. Jesup	E. Benjamin Andrews
Robert C. Ogden	Hugh H. Hanna
Walter H. Page	Starr J. Murphy
George Foster Peabody	Edwin A. Alderman
Albert Shaw	Hollis B. Frissell

Harry Pratt Judson"

On July 7, 1909, the Board received the following communication:

"June 29, 1909.

"*The General Education Board, 2 Rector Street, New York.*

"Gentlemen: My father authorizes me to say that on or before August 1, 1909, he will give to the General Education Board income bearing securities, as per the accompanying memorandum, the present market value of which is about ten million dollars ($10,000,000) to be added to the permanent endowment of the Board.

"He, however, authorizes and empowers you and your successors, whenever in your discretion it shall seem wise, to distribute the principal or any part thereof, provided the same shall be authorized by a resolution passed by the affirmative vote of two thirds of all those who shall at the time be members of your Board at a special meeting held on not less than thirty days' notice given in writing, which shall state that the meeting is called for the purpose of considering a resolution to authorize the distribution of the whole or some part of the principal of said

fund. Upon the adoption of such resolution in the manner above described, you and your successors shall be and are hereby released from the obligation thereafter to hold in perpetuity or as endowment such portion of the principal of such fund as may have been authorized to be distributed by such resolution.

"Very truly,

"(Signed) JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER, JR."

"June 29, 1909.

"*The General Education Board.*

"GENTLEMEN: I have heretofore from time to time given to your Board certain property, the principal of which was to be held in perpetuity, or as endowment. I now authorize and empower you and your successors, whenever in your discretion it shall seem wise, to distribute the principal or any part thereof, provided the same shall be authorized by a resolution passed by the affirmative vote of two thirds of all those who shall at the time be members of your Board, at a special meeting held on not less than thirty days' notice given in writing, which shall state that the meeting is called for the purpose of considering a resolution to authorize the distribution of the whole, or some part of the principal of said funds. Upon the adoption of such resolution in the manner above prescribed, you and your successors shall be and are hereby released from the obligation thereafter to hold in perpetuity or as endowment such portion of the principal of such funds as may have been authorized to be distributed by such resolution.

"The provisions of this letter shall not modify the right reserved to myself and my son in the letter of pledge of February 5, 1907, to direct to what specific objects, within the corporate purposes of the Board, two thirds of the

property covered by said pledge should be applied; but in case at the death of the survivor of myself and my son, there shall be any remainder not so designated, this remainder shall be included within the provisions of this letter.

"Very truly yours.

"(Signed) JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER."

The Board replied as follows:

"July 9, 1909.

"*Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Cleveland, Ohio.*

"DEAR SIR: The General Education Board acknowledges the receipt of communication of June 29th, 1909, from Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., a member of this Board, stating your purpose, on or before August 1, 1909, to add to the permanent endowment of the Board an additional sum of ten million dollars.

"The Board accepts with gratitude this new proof of your generosity, your zeal for an educated citizenship in this democracy, and your confidence, and will endeavor to use the gift with large-mindedness and good sense, to the end that the interests of society in the Republic may be increasingly benefited by this great foundation.

"The Board begs to acknowledge also the receipt of your personal communication of June 29, 1909, wherein you authorize and empower the Board and its successors, under wise and proper regulations, whenever in their discretion it shall seem wise, to distribute the principal of this fund and all other endowment funds hitherto contributed by you to this Board.

"The Board accepts this release from the obligation to hold these funds in perpetuity as an endowment, with a very clear appreciation of the wisdom, the long look-ahead, and the faith in the future manifested in the author-

ization. The members of the General Education Board, as a body-corporate and as individuals, are like-minded in their understanding and in their own determination to use the power you have given them for the public welfare, with patience, judgment, and justice.

"Very respectfully yours,

"(Signed) WALLACE BUTTRICK."

(*b*) *Correspondence with Miss Jeanes.*

"*George Foster Peabody, Treasurer, General Education Board:*

"I enclose my cheque for two hundred thousand dollars ($200,000) as Special Fund for assistance of the Negro 'Rural Schools' in the South.

"(Signed) ANNA T. JEANES."

The following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Be it resolved, That this Board accepts with gratitude the gift of Miss Anna T. Jeanes of the sum of "two hundred thousand dollars ($200,000) as a special fund for assistance of the Negro 'Rural Schools' in the South."

Resolved, That this fund be named the Anna T. Jeanes Fund for the Assistance of Negro Rural Schools in the South.

APPENDIX III

CONTRACT BETWEEN WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY AND BARNES HOSPITAL

This agreement made and entered into this 28th day of October, A. D. 1911, by and between Samuel M. Kennard, Samuel Cupples, and Murray Carleton, Trustees of the Barnes Hospital, under and by the virtue of the will of Robert A. Barnes, deceased, for themselves and their successors in trust, hereinafter styled the Trustees, and the Washington University, a corporation existing under special charter under the laws of the State of Missouri, hereinafter styled the University, witnesseth:

That whereas the Trustees have become satisfied, after a thorough examination conducted by them, that the efficiency of a hospital depends, in large part, upon the ability of its medical staff, and that a hospital can render better service to its patients when it has associated with it an organized medical school and scientific staff, laboratories, and dispensary:

And whereas the University realizes from actual experience that a medical department of a university is greatly benefited by having a hospital connected with it in which it can teach its students, from actual observation of the sick, by the student observing the treatment of the sick and injured at the bedside and in the operating room:

Now, therefore, the Trustees, for and in consideration of the University fulfilling its agreements hereinafter

made by it in this agreement as to building a medical school, a dispensary, equipping and maintaining the same, and treating the sick and injured in the hospital, hereby agrees that it will, within twelve months after this agreement is signed, start to build, and with all reasonable dispatch have built for them a first class hospital at a cost of not less than six hundred thousand dollars ($600,000) upon the ground now owned by them, or which may be hereinafter acquired by them, between Kingshighway on the west, West Kingshighway on the south, Euclid on the east, and the Wabash Railroad on the north, and, after the said hospital is erected, to thereafter, during the life of this agreement, maintain and operate the same, according to the best-known methods of running a hospital, within the limitation of their means or income.

And the Trustees further agree that the medical staff of the hospital shall consist solely of the teaching corps of the Medical Department of the University, but in any instance where the Trustees shall object for good and sufficient cause, in writing delivered to the University, to the attendance at the hospital of any member of the said teaching corps, he shall be withdrawn from the medical staff of the hospital and the University shall appoint in his stead some other doctor, but no objection shall be made to any member of the teaching corps becoming or remaining a member of the medical staff of the hospital on account of his practising the theory of medicine and practice taught by the University for the time being, as long as the Medical Department of the University continues to teach the theory of medicine and practice most prevailing in the medical schools connected with the leading universities of the United States. This clause is not to be understood to give the University

a right to have a doctor in its teaching corps for the sole purpose of allowing him to become a member of the medical staff of the hospital, but he must be an active member of the teaching corps. This clause is not to be understood that there cannot be members of the medical staff who are not members of the teaching corps of the Medical Department of the University, but if the University and the Trustees wish to have in the medical staff of the hospital doctors who are not members of the teaching corps of the Medical Department of the University, the University may suggest names to the Trustees and the Trustees may appoint from such names, as suggested, additional members to the medical staff of the hospital, who may be discharged or dropped from the medical staff of the hospital at the will of the Trustees or at the will of the University.

And the Trustees further agree that the medical staff of the hospital, constituted as above provided, shall have the exclusive right to render such medical service as may be rendered to any patient of the hospital therein by any physician or surgeon, and to direct in all respects the treatment therein of any such patient or patients by persons not physicians or surgeons. It is understood, however, that any patient may at his or her request, or at the request of his or her guardian, call into consultation any physician not a member of the medical staff.

And the Trustees further agree that the members of the teaching corps of the Medical Department of the University shall have the fullest and exclusive possible right consistent with the welfare of the patient to use the ward patients in the hospital for medical research and clinical instruction to the students of the University and medical staff of the hospital.

The Trustees further agree that they will nominate a man for superintendent, and appoint him upon the approval of the University. If the first man nominated by the Trustees does not meet with the approval of the University, then the Trustees shall nominate another man and submit his name for approval to the University. If the second man does not meet with the approval of the University, then the University shall nominate a man and submit his name for approval to the Trustees, and, if he shall not receive the approval of the Trustees, the University shall submit the name of another for the approval of the Trustees. If the second name so submitted shall not be approved by the Trustees, the Trustees shall then proceed to appoint a superintendent without submitting his name for approval, but the Trustees shall not so appoint any man as superintendent whom they have submitted for approval and such approval been refused.

The nurses shall be employed, controlled, paid, and discharged by the Trustees, but when in actual attendance upon a patient they shall be under the direction of the member of the medical staff attending such patient, and, if such member objects to a nurse, she shall be withdrawn from attendance of such patient.

All the agreements herein stated shall continue and remain in force for the term of fifty (50) years from the date hereof.

Either party to this agreement may abrogate the same at the end of thirty (30) years from the date hereof by giving to the other party notice in writing not less than three (3) years prior thereto of their or its intention to abrogate the same. Any party giving such notice shall not have a right to withdraw the same without the consent of the other party.

The Trustees further agree that, if the said hospital shall be wholly or partially destroyed by fire or the elements, they will rebuild or repair as soon as possible.

The Trustees hereby agree to make and maintain from time to time such rules and regulations as may be necessary to carry into full force and effect all the terms and provisions of this contract.

Now therefore the University, for and in consideration of the Trustees fulfilling their agreements hereinbefore set forth, hereby agrees that it will, within twelve months after the signing of this agreement, start to build and with all reasonable dispatch have built for it a first class dispensary at a cost of not less than one hundred thousand dollars ($100,000) on the ground now owned by it, or which may hereafter be acquired by it, within the boundaries as hereinbefore set out for the hospital site.

And it further agrees that it will, within twelve months after the signing of this agreement, start to build and with all reasonable dispatch have built for it first class medical school buildings at a cost of not less than two hundred thousand dollars ($200,000) on or near Euclid Avenue between the Wabash Railroad right of way and Chouteau Avenue in the City of St. Louis.

The University further agrees that it will equip and maintain in the dispensary and medical school buildings all the necessary and usual laboratories that are found in well-recognized dispensaries, medical school buildings, and hospitals, and that such of these laboratories as are necessary and useful to a hospital shall be open at such times as such laboratories are usually open in first class hospitals for the use of the medical staff of the hospital. And it further agrees that it will employ all necessary scientists for the operating of its laboratories, and that

those so employed shall do the laboratory work incidental and necessary to the hospital, free of charge to the hospital or its ward patients.

The University further agrees to have only among its teaching corps, and for its scientists working in its laboratories, doctors and scientists who are learned in their profession.

The University further agrees that the medical staff shall treat all patients in the wards of the hospital free of charge, and shall give to such patients all proper medical attention.

It is further agreed and understood by both the Trustees and the University that reasonable and customary charges for professional services shall be made by the staff to pay patients occupying private rooms.

The Trustees shall have nothing to do with the collecting of fees due doctors for any services rendered within the hospital. If any patient or his representatives shall object to and dispute the charge made by any member of the medical staff for services rendered in the hospital, the same shall be submitted to the Trustees who shall determine what the charge shall be, and the finding of the Trustees shall be binding on the physician.

The University further agrees that the medical staff shall teach and give the necessary instruction in the hospital, or any other nearby place designated by the Trustees, to the nurses and those who are training to become nurses in the hospital, free of charge to the hospital and to the nurses in the hospital.

In testimony whereof the Trustees have hereunto set their hands and seals and the University has caused these presents to be signed, in duplicate, in its corporate name by Robert S. Brookings, its President, and its corporate

seal duly attested to be hereunto attached, the day and year first above written.

NOTE: THE ABOVE CONTRACT HAS BEEN AMENDED BY AGREEMENT OF THE PARTIES THERETO AS FOLLOWS:

(1) THE RIGHT OF EITHER PARTY TO ABROGATE THE CONTRACT AT THE END OF THIRTY YEARS HAS BEEN CANCELLED;

(2) A MEMBER OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE MEDICAL SCHOOL IS TO ATTEND THE MEETINGS OF THE HOSPITAL TRUSTEES;

(3) PROVISION HAS BEEN MADE LOOKING TO THE INTRODUCTION OF FULL-TIME CLINICAL DEPARTMENTS, AS DESCRIBED IN PP. 168-9 OF THIS REPORT.

CONTRACT BETWEEN WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY AND BARNES HOSPITAL REGARDING TRAINING SCHOOL FOR NURSES

THIS AGREEMENT made and entered into this 26th day of June, 1914, by and between the Washington University, a corporation existing under special charter under the laws of the State of Missouri, hereinafter styled the University, party of the first part, and Samuel M. Kennard, Murray Carleton, and Lon V. Stephens, Trustees of the Barnes Hospital, under and by virtue of the will of Robert A. Barnes, deceased, for themselves and their successors in trust, hereinafter styled the Trustees,

WITNESSETH: WHEREAS the Nurses' Training School of the University has been and now is training nurses for the Washington University Hospital and the St. Louis Children's Hospital, and has rendered to each an exact account of the expense of such training, including room rent, board, etc., etc., but making no charge for the service of its medical teaching staff, each of said hospitals paying its proportion of said cost in the ratio of the nurses furnished each; and

WHEREAS the Trustees under a contract with said University have obligated themselves to pay all expenses

connected with the training of their nurses, except such teaching service as is rendered by the said University's medical staff, but had expected to house and board all of its own nurses pending the expected gift of a Nurses' Home; and

WHEREAS no such gift has as yet been realized, and it is evident that the Barnes Hospital will not be able, with its present accommodations, to properly care for said nurses;

NOW, THEREFORE, in consideration of the facts above recited, the Trustees, parties of the second part, hereby agree that if the University, party of the first part, will proceed to erect a part of the proposed Nurses' Home, and furnish the same and build fence, the University may charge as rent for said Home five per cent. (5%) on the cost of building, furnishings, and fence (no charge to be made for the building lot), and the said Trustees will pay their proportion of said rent, and the maintenance of said Home, in the ratio the number of nurses working in the Barnes Hospital shall bear to the total number of nurses housed in the Nurses' Home above referred to.

In testimony whereof, the University has caused these presents to be signed, in duplicate, in its corporate name by Robert S. Brookings, its President, and its corporate seal duly attested to be hereunto attached, and the Trustees have hereunto set their hands and seals, the day and year first above written.

CONTRACT BETWEEN YALE UNIVERSITY AND NEW HAVEN HOSPITAL

This agreement, between Yale University, a corporation existing under the laws of the State of Connecticut,

and located in the City of New Haven, in said State, hereinafter called "The University," and The General Hospital Society of Connecticut, a corporation also existing under the laws of said State and located in said City, hereinafter called "The Hospital," Witnesseth, that,

Whereas, the Hospital maintains, and has for many years maintained a general hospital situated in said City of New Haven, on a tract of land bounded northerly by Davenport Avenue, easterly by Cedar Street, southerly by Congress Avenue, and westerly by Howard Avenue; and

Whereas, the University maintains, and has for many years maintained, in said city a department of medicine known as the Yale Medical School, in which instruction is given to students in the theory and practice of medicine and surgery; and

Whereas, the parties hereto are united in the belief that a closer alliance between them will render the Hospital more useful to its patients and to the community, and will benefit said University by enabling it to give the best clinical instruction to its students, and afford the best opportunities for advanced study and scientific research; and

Whereas, it is deemed necessary by both parties hereto that the sum of at least six hundred thousand dollars ($600,000) be raised and used for the purposes hereinafter expressed, and said University has not available the necessary funds for such purposes, but is endeavoring to raise the same as part of a comprehensive plan to increase the endowment and efficiency both of the Hospital and of the Medical School; and

Whereas, in the opinion of the parties hereto, it will materially aid in obtaining such sum of money by gift

or otherwise that the agreement of the parties hereto be reduced to writing, as hereinafter expressed; and

Whereas, this agreement is not to become operative and effective unless and until said University gives the written notice hereinafter stated:

Now, therefore, the parties hereto, in consideration of the mutual covenants hereinafter expressed, do hereby agree as follows:

First: This agreement shall take effect and become operative upon receipt prior to July 1st, 1914, by the President of the Hospital, of written notice from the University, that the University has acquired or set apart not less than six hundred thousand dollars ($600,000) which it agrees to use for the purposes hereinafter stated. If such notice is not received by said President, prior to July 1st, 1914, then this agreement shall be null, void, and of no effect.

Second: Upon and after the giving and receiving of such notice prior to said date:

(1) The University agrees to pay to the Hospital, as hereinafter stated, such amount as shall be required to completely erect and fully equip in a workmanlike and proper manner, and with all suitable technical and other apparatus, on said land belonging to the Hospital, a fire-proof building, similar in character, design, and standard of construction and equipment to the new administration building to be built by the Hospital, to be used as a clinical and pathological laboratory, to be known by such name as the University may direct, and pursuant to plans and specifications to be approved by the Corporation of Yale University, or some agent appointed by said Corporation for that purpose, and by the Directors of the Hospital. The cost of said building shall not exceed $115,000 and the cost of said equipment shall

not exceed $10,000 unless otherwise mutually agreed. Said money shall be paid by the University to the Hospital in installments upon the written order or request of the Executive Committee of the Hospital, or a majority thereof, in order that the Hospital may be put in funds to meet the payments as they shall severally become due under any contract or contracts executed by the Hospital for the erection and furnishing of said laboratory, and for the purchase of said suitable technical and other apparatus to be used therein.

(2) The University further agrees to hold and manage the balance of said fund of six hundred thousand dollars ($600,000) as an endowment fund, with full power to sell and convey the same, or any part thereof, in its discretion, and to invest and reinvest the proceeds of such sale or sales, and keep said fund invested either separately and apart from the other funds held by the University or to mingle the same with such other funds and not to keep the same separately invested, and to collect and receive the income thereof from time to time accruing. If such fund is not kept separately invested, then the income thereof for each year shall be deemed to be such sum as is equivalent to the annual interest, calculated at the end of each year, upon said balance together with any accumulations that may be added thereto from time to time, at the average rate of income derived during each preceding year by the University from all its general invested funds. The judgment and determination of the Treasurer of the University as to such average rate, the value of such invested funds, the equivalent of said annual income, and all other conditions which may be necessary in order to determine such equivalent shall be final and conclusive.

(3) The University further agrees to expend the in-

come of the balance of said fund or its equivalent calculated as aforesaid, together with any additional sum or sums of money that may be needed from time to time, for the payment of salaries and other expenses hereinafter agreed to be paid by the University. If the income of said balance or its equivalent calculated as aforesaid shall be more than sufficient to pay said salaries and expenses, said excess shall be applied by the University for such purposes of the Medical School in connection with the Hospital as the Executive Committee of the Hospital and the Executive Board of said Medical School shall agree, or, failing such agreement, such excess shall be added to the principal of said fund.

(4) The University hereby further agrees to pay from time to time out of the income of said fund or its equivalent calculated as aforesaid, or out of other moneys belonging to the University, if said income or its equivalent is not sufficient for such purposes, for all proper and necessary repairs on all technical apparatus used in said building and for the replacement of such apparatus as may be worn out or destroyed and reasonably necessary to be replaced, including the expense of all chemicals and destructible supplies, and to pay the salaries of all needed scientific and educational workers in said laboratory, including a resident pathologist and bacteriologist, an assistant, a technician in pathology, a technician in surgery, a technician in medicine, a radiographer, a historian, head internes in medicine, surgery, and pathology, who shall each render his appropriate service to the Hospital and its patients, and the University shall also pay the salaries of a janitor or janitors, if more than one is reasonably necessary, to be employed in or about said laboratory, and to be appointed by the University; provided, however, that said appointees named in this paragraph

shall be acceptable to the Hospital and subject to all reasonable rules and regulations of the Hospital.

Third: Upon and after the giving and receiving of such notice prior to said date:

(1) The Hospital agrees to completely erect and fully equip, in a workmanlike and proper manner, and with all suitable technical and other apparatus, on said land, a fireproof building of the character hereinbefore specified, to be used as a clinical and pathological laboratory to be known by such name as the University may direct, and pursuant to plans and specifications to be approved as aforesaid, and to pay for the same out of said fund to be provided by the University as hereinbefore stated, and the Hospital agrees to keep and maintain said building in good repair during the continuance of this agreement.

(2) The Hospital hereby further agrees to permit the Corporation of Yale University to nominate, as vacancies occur, suitable persons for the positions of attending physicians, surgeons, and specialists in medicine and surgery on the staff of the Hospital, also for the positions of resident bacteriologist and pathologist, an assistant, a technician in pathology, a technician in surgery, a technician in medicine, a radiographer, a historian, head internes in medicine, surgery, and pathology above mentioned; it being agreed that the University shall appoint one or more janitors, if more than one is reasonably necessary to be employed in or about said laboratory. And the Hospital further agrees that all of said positions, except the position of janitor of said laboratory, shall be filled by election by the Directors of said Hospital upon such nominations and not otherwise, it being agreed, however, that the physicians, surgeons, and specialists connected with the Hospital at the time this

agreement becomes effective shall continue in the service of the Hospital until each shall respectively resign his position, or until the term of service of each shall terminate pursuant to the present regulations of the Hospital. If any such nomination is objected to by vote of the Directors of the Hospital duly passed at a meeting duly held, such nomination shall be withdrawn upon the written request of said Directors, or a majority of them, stating the grounds of their objections thereto, and another nomination shall be promptly substituted therefor until a nomination satisfactory to said Directors shall be made; it being the intent of this agreement that the Hospital shall secure for the treatment of its patients the greatest degree of medical and surgical skill that can be furnished by said Medical School. It is further agreed that in case of failure to secure a nomination or nominations satisfactory to the Hospital Directors after six months from the time when any vacancy shall occur, and after three nominations for said vacancy shall have been made by said Corporation, the names of such nominees shall be submitted to the arbitrators hereinafter mentioned, who shall report upon the fitness or unfitness of such nominees and their relative standing and merits. Thereafter such vacancy shall be filled by the Directors of the Hospital from the nominees approved by the arbitrators as fit for said vacancy, and if none is so approved the Corporation shall submit additional nominations.

The Hospital further agrees to suffer and permit the physicians, surgeons, and others elected by the Hospital as aforesaid to use the public wards, laboratories, and other buildings of the Hospital, wherever located, for teaching purposes, according to the most approved practice, consistent always with the welfare of patients and under the reasonable rules and regulations of the Hospital,

from the first day of October in each year until the first day of the following June in each year and for such further period in each year as may be mutually agreed upon by the parties.

(3) The Hospital hereby further agrees, after said laboratory has been completely erected and fully equipped as hereinbefore provided, to pay all expenses for the maintenance and repairs of said building, and to furnish at its own expense heat, electric light and current, water and gas for said building, it being the intent of this agreement that the University shall pay for the salaries of the persons above enumerated, and in addition thereto the expenses connected with the educational or scientific work carried on in said laboratory and Hospital, and that the expenses for the general care, except janitor service, and for the maintenance and repairs of said building, and of heat, electric light and current, water and gas to be furnished and used in said building shall be paid by the Hospital.

(4) In case of any disputes and differences between the Hospital and the University in reference to any matter or thing arising out of, or connected with, this agreement, each of such differences and disputes shall be submitted to the determination and award of three arbitrators, one of whom shall be the President of the Hospital, or some person appointed in writing by him; the second, the President of the University, or some person appointed in writing by him; and the third to be appointed in writing by said other two persons, and in case such third arbitrator is not so appointed within thirty days after the appointment of the other two arbitrators, the third arbitrator may upon request in writing of one of the other two arbitrators be appointed in writing by the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Connecticut, or

by the Senior Associate Justice in case of vacancy in the office, and said arbitrators shall thereupon proceed to determine all differences and disputes submitted to them, in writing, by said parties, in such way and manner as to them, or a majority of them, may seem best, with or without notice or hearing, and upon principles of justice and equity. The decision of said arbitrators, or a majority of them, shall be reduced to writing, and duplicate originals thereof shall be signed by said arbitrators, or a majority of them, and delivered one to the Hospital and one to the University, and such decision shall be final and conclusive upon the parties hereto.

(5) This agreement may be terminated by mutual consent; or, after ten years, by either party under and pursuant to the conditions hereinafter provided. If two-thirds of the members of the Corporation of Yale University or two-thirds of the Directors of the Hospital shall, at two meetings, with an intervening interval of not less than six or more than nine months, vote in favor of terminating the agreement, the Secretary of said Corporation or the Secretary of the Hospital, as the case may be, shall give written notice to the other of said action, and said agreement shall terminate five years after the receipt of said written notice or earlier if the parties shall so agree or if the arbitrators shall so order. If the agreement shall be terminated by the University the laboratory building to be built on said Hospital grounds shall be and remain the property of the Hospital, and the balance of said fund shall be and remain the property of the University, and in such case the income thereof or its equivalent shall thereafter be used for the purposes of the Medical School. If the agreement shall be terminated by the Hospital the balance of said fund shall be and remain the property of the University as aforesaid and the

Hospital shall pay to the University the then fair value of said laboratory building and its equipment, which value shall be determined by agreement of the parties, or failing such agreement, the question of said value shall be submitted to the determination and award of the three arbitrators appointed under the provision of the fourth section of this agreement. The decision of said arbitrators shall be final and conclusive upon the parties hereto.

In witness whereof, the parties hereto have caused to be subscribed their names, and their corporate seals affixed, this 29th day of May, 1913, and to a duplicate hereof, of like tenor and date.

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